

VOL. III

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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA

Vol. III

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY

PART I

GENERAL INTRODUCTION, SPECIMENS OF THE TIBETAN DIALECTS, THE HIMALAYAN DIALECTS, AND THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION, SPECIMENS OF THE TIBETAN DIALECTS, THE HIMALAYAN DIALECTS, AND THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP

COMPILED AND EDITED BY

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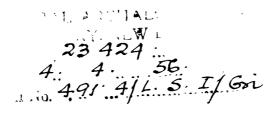


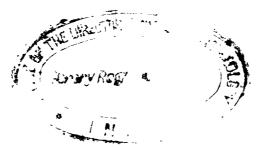
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LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A.—For the Deva-nagari alphabet, and others related to it—

```
श्राar{a}, इi, ईar{i}, उu, उत्तar{u}, ऋar{r}i, एe, एar{e}, ऐai, श्रीo, श्रीar{o}, श्रीau.
可 ka
        ख kha
                        घ gha ङ na
                                            च cha
                गga
                                                    क chha ज ia
                                                                    भा iha ज ña
z ta
        ठ tha
                 ड da
                        ढ dha
                                            ন ta
                                                                     ध dha न na
प pa
       फ pha
                 ब ba
                        भ bha म ma
                                            य ya
                                                    ₹ ra
                                                             ल la
                                                                     a va or wa
          ष sha
                                                    द rha
श्र ईव
                     स 80
                                ਚ ha
                                            ड ṛa
                                                             \mathbf{z}_{la}
                                                                     æ lha.
```

Visarga (:) is represented by h, thus क्रमश: kramaśah. Anuswāra (') is represented by m, thus सिंह simh, वंश vamś. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng; thus वःभ bangśa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign "over the letter nasalized, thus, में mē.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindostānī—

Tanwin is represented by n, thus, \dot{i} fauran. Alifi maq \bar{n} is represented by \bar{a} ;— thus, \dot{a} w \bar{a} .

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus, with banda. When pronounced, it is written,—thus, wif $gun\bar{a}h$.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, बन ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindī) देखता dēkhatā, pronounced dēkhtā; (Kāśmirī) च्हा के किंके; कर्ष के kar, pronounced kor; (Bihārī) देखिय dēkhath.

- C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—
 - (a) The ts sound found in Marāṭhī (ব), Puṣḥtō (২), Kāśmīrī (ৣ, ব), Tibetan (ই), and elsewhere, is represented by \underline{ts} . So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by $\underline{ts}h$.
 - (b) The dz sound found in Marāṭhī (ব), Puṣḥtō (২), and Tibetan (২) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh.
 - (c) Kāśmīrī ω (ञ्) is represented by \tilde{n} .
 - (d) Sindhī ف, Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) من , and Puṣḥtō j or o are represented by n.
 - (e) The following are letters peculiar to Puṣḥtō:—

 t; ts or dz, according to pronunciation; e d; z th or g, according to pronunciation; e, i, r; z th or g, according to pronunciation; e, i, or i
- D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—
 - \vec{a} , represents the sound of the a in all.
 - a in hat. ă, ĕ, e in met. o in hot. Ö, é in the French était. o in the first o in promote. ö in the German schön. ü, ü in the mühe. ,, th, th in think. th in this.

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus, k', t', p', and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE present volume deals with the Tibeto-Burman languages of India. For convenience it has been divided into three parts, viz.:—

Part I, Tibeto-Burman languages of Tibet, the Himalayas, and North Assam.

Part II, the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups.

Part III, the Kuki-Chin and Burma groups.

The materials for Part I were originally entrusted to Professor Conrady of Leipzig. After he had analysed part of the materials, but before he had thrown the results into a connected form, he was compelled to abandon the task by a call to other duties.

The materials and his notes were then made over to my Assistant, Dr. Sten Konow of Christiania, Norway, who went over the whole work again and prepared the part in the form in which it is now presented to the public.

Dr. Konow has also prepared the Kachin section of Part II, and the whole of Part III.

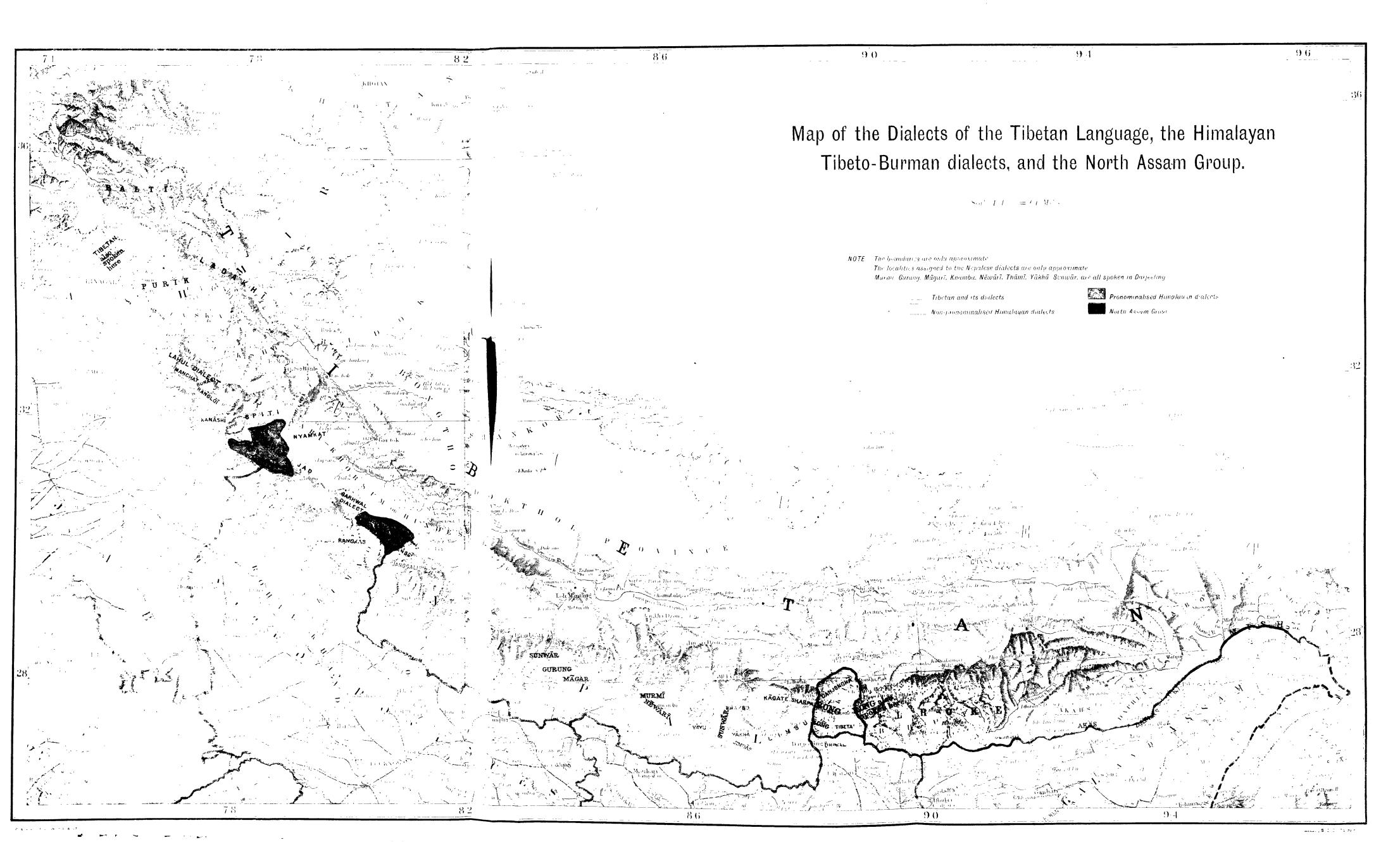
Dr. Konow has been allowed complete liberty for displaying individuality of treatment, and the volumes prepared by him are entirely his work. I have, however, no hesitation in accepting his views, and, as Editor of the entire series of volumes of the Linguistic Survey of India, I accept full responsibility for all statements contained in them.

GEORGE A. GRIERSON.



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THE TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

The Tibeto-Burman family is the most important group of Indo-Chinese languages spoken in British India.

The denomination 'Indo-Chinese languages' comprises an endless series of different forms of speech in India and China. They are all spoken by Mongolian races, and they all have some characteristics in common. The most important are the use of monosyllabic words and the so-called isolation, i.e., the absence of form-words and, consequently, of grammatical forms. Modifications such as are expressed by means of grammatical forms in Indo-European languages are indicated by putting side by side, according to fixed rules, words of which each retains its independence, without the possibility of a real inflexion.

It has been usual to consider the Indo-Chinese languages as forming one distinct linguistic family, but we now know that this cannot be the case. It has been shown that the monosyllabic bases, which were formerly considered as handed down from the oldest times are, at least in a great number of cases, derived from polysyllables. On the other hand, the grammatical system of isolation is by no means consistently maintained in all Indo-Chinese languages. Many of them are agglutinating, i.e., the various grammatical relations are indicated by means of form-words,—prefixes, suffixes, and infixes,—added to the bases. Some dialects have in this way developed a pretty full grammatical system. It has been shown that there is no fundamental difference between agglutinating and isolating languages, and the adoption of one or the other principle cannot be used as the chief starting point for the classification of a language.

The reasons for assuming a relationship between all Indo-Chinese languages have Indo-Chinese comprises two different families.

thus proved invalid, and it has been possible to distinguish, instead of one, two linguistic families, the one known as the Mön-Khmer family, and the other comprising Chinese, the Tai languages, and the Tibeto-Burman family.

A short account of the Mon-Khmer family will be found in the Introduction to Vol. II of this Survey. The Tai languages are closely related to Chinese, and the two form one distinct family as compared with the Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. Chinese does not fall within the scope of this Survey. The Tai group has been dealt with on pp. 59 and ff. of the second volume.

The Tibeto-Burman family comprises a long series of dialects spoken from Tibet

in the north to Burma in the south; and from Baltistan
in the west to the Chinese provinces of Sechuan and

Yünnan in the east.

The greater portion of this district lies outside the territory included within the operations of this Survey, and we have no trustworthy information regarding the number of speakers. Local estimates have been forwarded from those districts which fall within the scope of this Survey. They will be given in detail under the head of the various sub-groups into which our treatment of the Tibeto-Burman family will be subdivided. In this place vol. III, PART I.

we shall anticipate the detailed account and put together the totals for the sub-groups. We shall further add the figures returned at the Census of 1901. In comparing the two it must be borne in mind that the last Census was extended to Burma, which province was not included under the operations of this Survey.

The number of speakers were then returned as follows:-

											1	Number of	speakers.
				Nam	ie of g i	roup.						Estimated number.	Census of 1901.
Tibetan	•					•						45,024	235,229
Himalaya	an .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	194,234	190,585
North As	sam	•	•		•		•	•				36,910	41,731
Bodo .	•		•		•	•		•		•	•	617,989	596,411
Nāgā .		•	•				•			•		292,799	247,780
Kachin	•	•		•	•		•				•	1,920	125,775
K uki-Ch	in .	•	•			•	•				•	564,091	624,149
$\mathbf{Burmese}$		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	62,652	7,498,794
	TOTAL	•	•			•	•	•		•		1,815,619	9,560,454

Of the 9,560,454 speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages enumerated at the last Census, only 1,803,611 were found within the territory included in this Survey. The rest were enumerated in Burma.

It is impossible to form even an approximate idea of the number of speakers outside British India. The population of Tibet has been estimated at 6 million people. No estimates are available for the States of Nepal and Bhutan or for the number of speakers in China. We may say, however, that the total number of speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages can hardly be estimated at less than twenty millions.

The Tibeto-Burman languages are very closely related to the Siamese-Chinese. The Relation to Siamese-Chinese vocabulary is, to a great extent, the same. It will be sufficient to give some few examples. I shall give the words in Tibetan, Burmese, Khāmtī, and Chinese. Khāmtī has been chosen to represent the Tai family, because it falls within the scope of this Survey. With regard to Tibetan and Burmese, I shall give the written and not the spoken form.

				- !	Tibetan.	Burmese.	Khāmtī.	Chinese.
One			•		gchig	t ach	$l\ddot{u}ng$	yit
Two	•				gnyis	nhach	shâng	ri
Three		•	•		gsum	$th\widetilde{m{u}}$	$shar{a}m$	รลั m
Four			•	•	bz h i	le	shī	8 s i
Five		•		•	lnga	ngā	hã	ngu

					Tibetan.	Burmese.	Khāmtī.	Chinese.
Six .	•		•		drug	khrok	hōk	luk
Seven			•		bdun	khwan-nhach	chet	ts'it
Eight					brgyad	rhach	pet	pat
Nine	•	•		•	dgu	kü	kau	kieu
Ten	•				bchu	chay	ship	ship
\mathbf{H} undred					brgya	ta-rā	$par{a}k$	pek
Die					shi	<u>th</u> e	tai	ssi
Dog				•	khyi	khwe	$mar{a}$	khiuen
Ear					rna	na	$ping$ - $har{u}$	ri
Eye					mig	myak	$tar{a}$	muk
Fire					me	mi	phai	huo
Hair			•		sk r a	chhã	$phar{o}m$	sām
Head		•			mgo	khong	$har{o}$	hiep
Horse					rta	mrang	$mar{a}$	ma
Mouth			•		kha	khã-twa ng	$shar{o}p$	kheu
Name			•	•	ming	a-many	chü	ming
Sun	•			•	nyi-ma	ne	wan	shit
Tongue					lche	$lhyar{a}$	lin	shet
${f Tooth}$				•	\$ 0	<u>th</u> wā	khēð	yā
Water					chhu	re	nam	shui, ko

It will be seen that in many cases the correspondence is striking. Sometimes, as in the case of Tibetan rta, Chinese ma, horse, it is less apparent. The base-word is ra or rang. Tibetan r-ta contains an additional word ta, and the original base is only represented by the single letter r. Chinese ma must be compared with Burmese mrang. It contains a prefix ma and ma-rang, mrang, has been contracted to ma.

It will be seen that the Tibeto-Burman dialects are, on the whole, more closely connected with Chinese than with Siamese. It is not, however, possible to bring the relationship under one distinct formula. There are numerous cross lines of affinity, and some dialects show more affinity with Siamese than with Chinese.

The correspondence between Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese is by no means restricted to vocabulary. They have also some words in common which are used to denote the same relations in time and space. In the terminology of Aryan grammar, we should say that some of the case and tense suffixes are the common property of both families. Thus the Tibetan genitive suffix gyi is identical with Chinese $ch\bar{\imath}$, which is used in the same way. The yo which is used to form a past tense in Siyin, Kōm, and other dialects, should be

compared with Chinese yeu. The o which is added to the principal verb in Tibetan is probably identical with Tai \bar{u} and so forth.

Such instances of correspondence are not, however, very numerous, and they do not play any important rôle in deciding the question of the relationship of the two families. They only show that a tendency towards agglutination must be ascribed to their common parent tongue.

Tibetan as well as Siamese and Chinese makes use of tones. The Tibetan tonesystem will be sketched later on. In this place it is suffi-Tones and phonetical system. cient to note that Professor Conrady's investigations have shown that it has been developed on the same lines, and according to the same principles, as is the case in Chinese and Tai. Moreover, the whole phonetic system must originally have been the same in the Tibeto-Burman and in the Siamese-Chinese families. sitive bases could not begin with hard, but only with soft, consonants. In all dialects, the soft initials have a tendency to develope into hard sounds, while transitive bases were formed from intransitives by hardening the initial consonant, and, at the same time, pronouncing the word in a higher tone. The raising of the tone and the hardening of the initial were probably both due to the existence of an old prefix before the base-word. These prefixes have been lost in Chinese, but the tones still show that they once existed. This common use of prefixes in the formation of words in the common parent tongue from which the Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese families have sprung, shows that that old form of speech in reality belonged to the agglutinating class. The difference between agglutination and isolation cannot, accordingly, be made the basis of a classification of languages. An agglutinating language can become isolating, and vice versa.

An account of the Tai tone-system and some general remarks on the tones in Indo-Chinese languages, based on Prof. Conrady's investigations, will be found on pp. 67 and ff. of the second volume of this Survey.

It has already been remarked that the speeches now under consideration are monosyllabic and, generally speaking, of the so-called isolat-Monosyllabic bases. Isolation. ing class, but that these peculiarities in all probability are not original features of the languages. Nevertheless, at the present day, we find them very prevalent. Generally speaking every monosyllabic base-word is incapable of inflexion. The unaltered and unchangeable bases are simply put together into sentences. There are no proper case and tense suffixes, and most bases can be used in more than one way, as nouns, as adjectives, or as verbs. Under such circumstances it might be expected that it is all but impossible to translate a sentence, there being no outer signs to show where we are to look for the subject and what word represents the verb. The confusion that is to be expected from this state of affairs, is remedied by means of a fixed order of words. Thus in Chinese, the subject comes first, then the verb, then the object, and genitives and adjectives precede the qualified noun. In Siamese the usual order is, likewise, subject, verb, object, but adjectives and genitives follow the qualified Compare the remarks on pp. 75 and f. of Vol. II.

It will be seen that the Tai languages agree with Chinese in using the order, subject, verb, object. The Tibeto-Burman languages, on the other hand, arrange the words of the sentence according to a different principle, viz., subject, object, verb. They also

INTRODUCTION. 5

make a much more extensive use of auxiliary words in order to connect the words of a sentence and to explain their mutual relationship. As a consequence of these important characteristics, the Tibeto-Burman languages stand out as a distinct family as compared with Tai and Chinese.

The Tibeto-Burman dialects possess a richly varied vocabulary. Thus we often find that the different varieties of some particular animal anguages.

find that the different varieties of some particular animal are denoted by means of different terms, where we should use one and the same word. For instance, in Lushēi we find nine words for 'ant' and twenty different translations of the one word 'basket.' It will be seen that there is a tendency to coin a separate word for every individual concrete conception. This peculiarity is shared by most languages spoken by tribes in a primitive stage of civilisation, and they are by no means peculiar to the Tibeto-Burman, or even to the Indo-Chinese forms of speech. Most Tibeto-Burman dialects are spoken by wild or semi-wild tribes, and it is accordingly only to be expected that in them this peculiarity should be so prominent.

Most Tibeto-Burman languages further evince a difficulty in forming words for abstract ideas. This is again a consequence of the uncivilized state of the tribes speaking them. We know from Chinese, and partly also from Tibetan, that such languages are quite able to form expressions for the most subtle niceties of human thought. It has been common to draw attention to the fact that languages such as Tibeto-Burman are unable to distinguish between form and substance, because they do not possess formwords, i.e., words which do not denote any substance or any material conception but simply the different ways of forming and arranging them in the mind. Professor Friedrich Müller of Vienna, in his compendium of comparative philology, says,—

'Such languages have no proper comprehension of form, and are quite unfit for the classification and combination of ideas. The principal reason is that they do not possess particles, i.e., words with a wider meaning, which support the act of thinking like algebraic formulas. When such languages are forced into modern conceptions, as, for instance, in translating the Bible, they are at once overcome by the substance; they conceive as substance what we conceive as form.

'The deficiency of such languages is, to no small extent, due to the fact that they do not possess a real verb, the whole expression starting from substantival conceptions.'

The history of the various Tibeto-Burman languages shows that many of them have developed a kind of inflexion by means of words which are now for all practical purposes particles. Although, as the example of Chinese shows, the absence of such particles does not, by any means, preclude the higher acts of thinking, most of these tongues, whether they possess these words or not, have nevertheless remained in the stage of individual conceptions and are unable to give expression to abstract ideas. The consequences of this state of affairs can be seen in several ways.

It has been already remarked that the vocabulary is richly developed, there being in most cases separate words for the most individual conceptions but few or no words to denote more general ideas. Thus several dialects prefer to use the word denoting an individual of their tribe instead of the general word 'man,' and we find translations such as singphō, man, in Singphō, and kha-mi, man, in Khami.

The same tendency towards individual conception of all objects can also be traced in the fact that many Tibeto-Burman dialects avoid using words such as 'hand,' 'foot,' 'father,' 'mother,' etc. They speak only of 'my hand,' 'thy hand,' 'his hand,' and so forth in the case of all words denoting relationship or parts of the body. Thus, Thādo has $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my-father; $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, thy-mother; \bar{a} - $kh\bar{u}t$, his hand, but does not employ $p\bar{a}$, father, $n\bar{u}$, mother, or $kh\bar{u}t$, hand, alone. Similar idioms are common in dialects of the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups and also in some Himalayan dialects.

The Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups also agree in using generic particles with numerals. The same is the case in Burmese. By means of such particles the numerals are restricted in their sphere and only apply to some special class of objects. The Burmese would not for example simply say 'one man,' but they would add a particle to the numeral in order to indicate the class to which the qualified word belongs. Thus, they say $l\bar{u}$ ta-yauk, man one-rational-being, i.e., one man; and palang $s'ay-l\tilde{u}$, bottle ten-round-things, or ten bottles.

Classes of words.

Classes of words in the same word way as Indo-European languages. The same word words are all words.

Classes of words.

Classes of words in the same word way as Indo-European languages.

Chinese does not distinguish between the different classes of words in the same way as Indo-European languages.

The same word way as Indo-European languages.

The Tibeto-Burman dialects belong to that class of speeches regarding which Professor Friedrich Müller remarks that they do not possess a real verb. Their verb is a kind of noun, and instead of saying 'I go,' a Tibeto-Burman would say 'my going.' Under such circumstances it is not quite correct to speak of nouns, adjectives, and verbs. It would be better to speak of indefinite bases, of which the radical meaning is still so free and general that they can be used either as subjects or as predicates, and, therefore, as nouns, as adjectives, or as verbs at will.¹

It will, however, be more practical for our present purposes to use the well-known terms of Indo-European grammar, and the remarks which follow will therefore be classed under the usual heads of noun, adjective, verb, etc.

Nouns. The words used as nouns in Tibeto-Burman languages differ from the Indo-European nouns in many respects.

There is no grammatical gender, and such words as do not denote animate beings have no gender at all. The male and female gender of animate beings can, of course, be distinguished. There are often quite different words to denote the male and the female, a consequence of the common tendency to coin separate words for the most individual conceptions; or the natural gender is equally frequently distinguished by adding words meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. The different methods of denoting the gender have thus nothing to do with grammar.

The Indo-European noun has different forms for the singular and the plural, and often also for the dual. That is not the case in Tibeto-Burman. The number is frequently left to be inferred from the context, or else it is marked by adding numerals or words meaning 'many,' 'all,' 'several,' and so forth.

There is no proper declension. Different relations in time and space can however

INTRODUCTION. 7

and only added to the last of a number of connected words. Thus, they are added to an adjective which follows a noun and not to the qualified noun, while, if number is indicated by adding a numeral, an indefinite pronoun, or something of the sort after the principal noun, the postposition comes after this addition.

The most important case of Aryan grammar is the genitive. It is often left without any sign in Tibeto-Burman languages, the governed noun being simply put before the governing one. In other cases an element is added which looks like a suffix. Thus in Tibetan kyi, gyi, or i, and in Burmese $\bar{\imath}$. The Burmese $\bar{\imath}$ is also a demonstrative pronoun, and the same is probably the case with Tibetan kyi. Compare the remarks in the introduction to Tibetan, on p. 26, below. Similarly the so-called genitive suffixes of other Tibeto-Burman dialects can probably all be derived from demonstrative pronouns. An idiom such as Tibetan mi-i khyim, a man's house, thus literally means 'man-that house.' It will be seen that such forms are no real cases.

Adjectives are commonly undistinguishable from nouns in form. No fixed rule can be given regarding their position with reference to the noun they qualify. The rule in Tibetan is that they follow the qualified noun or, if they precede it, they are put in the genitive case. The practice in other dialects is inconsistent. The frequent dropping of every sign of the genitive sufficiently accounts for this state of affairs even if we consider the Tibetan rule as the original one. It will, however, be remarked later on that formerly the order of words must have been less fixed than it is at the present day.

Noun and adjective form a kind of compound, and postpositions are only added to the last component. This is of course a necessary consequence of the character of the Tibeto-Burman languages. There is no real inflexion, and the various relations in time and space are indicated but once in the case of several parallel words.

There is no comparative or superlative. Comparison is effected by adding postpositions to the compared noun in order to show that the meaning of the adjective is relative. Thus we say 'great as compared with him,' 'great from him,' 'great among all,' and so forth, instead of 'greater,' 'greatest,' respectively.

The numeral system is distinctly decimal. The rule for the formation of higher numbers in Tibetan and also in Chinese is to prefix the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc., to 'ten,' etc. For instance, Tibetan bdun-chu, seven tens, seventy. Bchu-bdun, ten seven, on the other hand, means 'seventeen.' The same is the case in Burmese, Kachin, and in some other dialects such as Meithei, Shö, Mikir, etc. The common rule in the dialects belonging to the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kuki-Chin groups is, however, to suffix the multiplier. Compare Thādo, som-ngā, ten-five, fifty.

Several Himalayan languages make use of a different system in the formation of higher numbers, which are not counted in tens but in twenties. Thus Kanāwarī has nish nizzāū sai 'two twenties ten' for 'fifty.' The same system is also found in some dialects belonging to the Bodo group, and a separate word for 'twenty' is, moreover, common in several Kuki-Chin dialects. Similarly, Kachin has khun, twenty. In the

¹ Similarly in Persian, an Aryan language, the relationship of the genitive is indicated by the so-called *izīfat*, which is also of pronominal origin, though, in this case, the pronoun is relative and is appended to the governing, not to the governed noun.—G. A. G.

case of the Himalayan languages this state of affairs is probably due to the existence of a non-Tibeto-Burman element in the population. Compare the remarks in the introduction to those forms of speech, on pp. 179 and 273 below. It is impossible to decide whether a similar explanation holds good in the case of the remaining dialects.

The use in some dialects of generic particles with numerals has already been mentioned.

The personal pronouns are comparatively simple, but there are several nouns in use

Pronouns.

as pronouns, the use of which is regulated by the laws of etiquette. Thus in Burmese the simple word for 'I' is ngā. It is, however, commonly replaced by other words, such as kywon-nuk, 'little slave,' when addressing an equal, kywon-dā, 'king's slave,' when addressing a superior, and so forth.

In some dialects we find different forms of the pronoun 'we,' one excluding and the other including the person or persons addressed. This is for instance the case in Gārō. A fully developed system of various forms of the pronoun of the first person is found in some Himalayan dialects such as Kanāwarī. The details will be found in the section of this volume dealing with Himalayan languages, and it will be seen that here we probably have to do with the influence of non-Tibeto-Burman forms of speech.

There is no relative pronoun in the Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. Some dialects have adopted the Aryan relatives, and Aryan constructions are commonly imitated in all dialects, at least in the translated specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey; but the indigenous Tibeto-Burman principle is to use a kind of participle instead. Thus, Burmese pyu-thi thu, doing man, the man who does; Tibetan 'agro-ba-i tshong-params, going of merchants, the merchants who go.

The formation of such participles differs in the different dialects, though we may observe that, as a general rule, they are treated as nouns qualifying another noun, and that hence, in Tibetan, they are usually put in the genitive case. The Burmese relative particle $\underline{th}i$, written $\underline{th}any$, is probably the demonstrative pronoun $\underline{th}i$, that. Compare the remarks on the formation of the genitive in Tibeto-Burman languages.

The Tibeto-Burman verb is properly a noun. It is not capable of inflexion in person, number, or gender. In some Tibetan dialects we find a tendency to reserve certain forms for certain persons, and, in the Namsangiā Nāgā dialect, we apparently find a full system of conjugational forms. The same is also the case in other dialects, and more especially in some of those belonging to the Himalayan group, but the whole principle is foreign to Tibeto-Burman languages, and it is always due to the influence of other, different, forms of speech.

The nominal nature of the Tibeto-Burman verb is also apparent from the fact that the subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent. Thus, instead of 'I strike' they say 'by-me striking.' The case of the agent is not, however, regularly used, and in the dialects of the Bodo group it has been almost entirely discarded. In such cases, the subject should, according to Aryan principles, be considered as a genitive qualifying the verbal noun which is used as a verb. In those dialects which regularly

insert pronominal prefixes before nouns governing a genitive, such prefixes are often also used before a noun performing the function of a verb. For instance, in Banjōgī we have kei-mā-ni kā-vūak, me-by my-striking, I strike.

It has already been remarked that the ordinary noun has only one number. If it is necessary to indicate the notion of plurality, this is done, not by means of suffixes, but by adding words meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. The same is the case with the noun when used as a verb, although the addition of pluralizing words is not common. Compare idioms such as Yākhā cho-wā-chi, eatings, they ate.

The verbal noun can be used alone as a verb without any addition, but in many cases a particle is added in order to show that the action of the verbal noun really takes place. Such a particle is the o which is added to the principal verb of narrative sentences in Tibetan; thus, song-ng-o, he went.

It seems probable that such assertive particles, in most, if not in all, cases, are various forms of the verb substantive, which, in its turn, often performs the function of a demonstrative pronoun. Thus the common assertive particle in Siyin is hi, and the same word is also used as a verb substantive and a demonstrative pronoun. It is related to the $h\bar{a}$ which is used as an assertive particle and a demonstrative pronoun in Hallām, and elsewhere. A form such as Angāmi \bar{a} pu- $w\bar{e}$, I say, should accordingly be literally translated 'my saying-is.'

Another consequence of the nominal character of the Tibeto-Burman verb is that it can be used in connexion with postpositions like an ordinary noun. In this way the verbal noun is used to form various kinds of adverbial sentences. Thus, Tibetan 'agro-na, going-in, if (I) go; lang-nas, rising-from, when you have risen; ltas-pas, seeing-by, when he saw, etc.

Ordinary nouns are incapable of inflexion in time. The same is, broadly speaking, the case with nouns performing the function of a verb. It will hence be generally observed that the use of the so-called tenses is very loose. If it is required to lay especial stress on the time at which an action took place, it is necessary to add a word indicating the fact. Thus we find idioms such as 'me-by striking-finishing,' instead of 'I struck,' and so forth. Such additions have, it is true, often lost their full root-meaning, and are now exclusively used as suffixes; but in all cases in which we can trace the history of such tense-suffixes, they have a definite meaning of their own.

The various tense-bases of Tibetan are of a different nature. Modern investigations seem to show that they have nothing to do with time, but are simply parallel forms, of which the sphere has sometimes been restricted to one special time.

The negative verb appears to have been originally formed by prefixing a negative particle to the verbal noun. If a verb substantive or an auxiliary was added, the negative particle was often prefixed to it. This is probably the reason for so many dialects using a negative suffix. It must be derived from a verb substantive with a negative prefix. Thus the Old Kuki suffix mak, not, contains a verb substantive uk and a negative prefix mak. Uk is probably identical with Tibetan 'adug, is, Balti uk.

Order of words.

Order of words.

languages is subject, object, verb. There is, however, considerable inconsistency, and comparison with Chinese and Siamese shows that a fixed order of words must be a comparatively modern departure.

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At all events, it cannot have sprung into existence before the old Tibeto-Burman parent language had branched off from the common stock from which the modern Tibeto-Burman and Chinese-Siamese families have both developed.

It has been pointed out that the old intransitive bases of Tibeto-Burman as well as those of Chinese-Siamese could not begin with hard consonants. On the whole, it is doubtful whether the common parent tongue possessed hard consonants at all. The old initial consonants of intransitive bases were soft. Although several dialects of Assam and Further India in many cases have preserved them, there is a general tendency throughout the whole family to harden such sounds. The preservation of these soft initial consonants is most common in the dialects belonging to the Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā groups, which in this respect agree with classical Tibetan and many Himalayan dialects. It is not, however, possible to base a classification only upon this state of affairs, because it would necessitate our separating the modern dialects of Tibet from classical Tibetan.

The use of tones might possibly suggest itself as another basis of classification. Central Tibetan in this respect apparently agrees with Kachin and probably also with the central Nāgā dialects. The tendency to develope a system of different tones must, however, be assigned to the common parent tongue from which Tibeto-Burman and Siamese-Chinese have been derived. It is apparently a consequence of the dropping of the old prefixes. The fact that it has not been developed in numerous Tibeto-Burman dialects is probably due to the more thoroughgoing preservation of the old prefixes, and perhaps also to the influence of the languages spoken by the old inhabitants whom the Tibeto-Burmans found in possession of the country when they first entered it.

On the whole, it is impossible to classify the Tibeto-Burman dialects satisfactorily. They must have split up into many different forms of speech at a very early period, and there are numerous crossings and intercrossings. The remarks which follow do not pretend to be more than a provisional attempt at a classification based on the facts brought to light in this Survey.

The most important Tibeto-Burman language is Tibetan. It comprises several dialects, and it is known in an old form which goes back to at least the seventh century A.D.

The old language makes an extensive use of prefixes, which had lost their character as separate syllables and had been reduced to consisting of a consonant alone. The old soft initials were well preserved.

The modern dialects have all been developed from a similar form of speech. In Central Tibet the old prefixes have been lost, and the soft initials have become aspirated and hardened. Hand in hand with these changes the characteristic Central Tibetan tone-system has been developed.

In the west, the prefixes have, to a great extent, been preserved. The same is the case with the soft initials. There are, on the other hand, no tones.

The eastern dialects agree with the western ones in the particulars just mentioned. Some Tibetan dialects are spoken in the Chinese province of Ssechuan. They are characterized by the use of prefixes which are still full syllables. In this respect they connect Tibetan with the dialects of the Kachin, Nāgā, and Bodo groups.

The Kachin dialects agree with classical Tibetan in many respects. The old soft initials have, on the whole, been preserved. There is, however, a strong tendency to aspirate them. The old prefixes are still pronounced in many words. Causals are commonly formed by means of prefixes. Kachin possesses a system of tones similar to that of Central Tibetan.

In the south Kachin is spoken in the neighbourhood of Burmese, and philologically it can be considered as a link between Tibetan and Burmese. It agrees with the latter form of speech in many important details, e.g., in the use of several prefixes and suffixes and in the richly developed system of verbal particles.

The neighbours of the Kachins towards the west speak dialects belonging to the Nāgā and Kuki-Chin groups, and there are many characteristic features which connect Kachin with both. Thus the extensive use of the prefix ga, ka is common to Kachin and Nāgā, and the vocabulary and many suffixes in Kuki-Chin are strikingly like those in use in Kachin.

The Nāgā group comprises a long series of dialects which mutually differ much from each other. They are, on the whole, more closely related to Tibetan than to Burmese. The old soft initials have often been hardened, but they are also often preserved. Causals are still often formed by means of prefixes, and prefixes on the whole play a considerable rôle. The dialects classed together in this Survey under the head of the Central Nāgā sub-group are apparently more closely related to Tibetan than the other Nāgā dialects. They are said to make use of an elaborate system of tones, and the negative verb is formed as in Tibetan by means of a negative prefix, while other Nāgā dialects, as also the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups use a negative suffix.

In the south and west the Nāgā dialects are connected with the Bodo and Kuki-Chin languages by means of several intermediate dialects.

Between Nāgā and Tibetan we find several dialects which have been put together as the North Assam Group. They also, in some respects, connect Tibetan with the dialects of the so-called Bodo-group. Before proceeding to those last-mentioned forms of speech it will, however, be necessary to mention a long series of dialects spoken in the Central and Lower Himalayas, which will be classed together under the head of Himalayan languages. They comprise many dialects, which differ to some extent amongst themselves, but which as a whole can be said to form a link between Tibetan and the dialects of the Bodo and Kuki-Chin groups. Some of them, besides, show traces of a non-Tibeto-Burman element. Further details will be found in the introduction to the Himalayan languages.

The Bodo dialects agree with Tibetan in many respects. The old soft initials have, to a considerable extent, been preserved, and causal verbs are commonly formed by adding prefixes as in Tibetan. It is, however, still more common to form them by adding a suffix. In this respect the Bodo dialects agree with Nāgā, with which group it also has several other points of connexion, and also with the Kuki-Chin dialects.

With those latter forms of speech the Bodo dialects also agree in other important points, e.g., in the frequent use of the pronominal prefixes and of generic particles with numerals.

The Kuki-Chin dialects, on the other hand, form the last link in the chain connecting Tibetan with Burmese, the southernmost Tibeto-Burman language.

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Further details will be found in the introductions to the various sub-groups. The preceding remarks will have shown that the relationship between the various Tibeto-Burman dialects is somewhat complicated, and that it is impossible to bring it under one single formula. If we ignore minor details the state of affairs can, perhaps, broadly be described as follows:—

Tibetan and Burmese, the northernmost and southernmost Tibeto-Burman languages, are connected by means of two different chains of dialects. The eastern consists of the various Kachin dialects, the western has a double beginning in the north, which unites towards the south. In the first place we find the dialects of the North Assam group merging into the Nāgā, and further into the Bodo and Kuki-Chin forms of speech, and, in the second place, we can also trace a line from Tibetan, through the Himalayan languages, into Bodo and further into Kuki-Chin. Those latter dialects then gradually merge into Burmese.

The first to recognize the unity of the Tibeto-Burman languages was B. H.

Hodgson, who in 1828 began to publish a series of papers on the Tibeto-Burman dialects. Some useful remarks had already been published by Rémusat in 1820. Max Müller, in his Letter to Chevalier Bunsen on the Classification of the Turanian Languages, attempted a classification of the Tibeto-Burman languages, by sub-dividing them into two groups which he called sub-Himalayan or Gangetic and Lohitic, respectively. The latter sub-division broadly comprises Burmese and the dialects of the North Assam, Nāgā, Bodo, Kachin and Kuki-Chin groups.

Remarks on Tibeto-Burman philology were further made by Logan, Forbes, Grube, and others. The whole question was finally put forward in a new light in the works of Professors Kuhn and Conrady.

The list which follows registers some of the principal works dealing with Tibeto-Burman philology in general. Other works will be mentioned in the introductions to the various sub-groups and dialects:—

LEYDEN, J.,—On the Languages and Literature of the Indo-Chinese Nations. Asiatic Researches, Vol. X, 1808, pp. 209 and ff. Reprinted, with bibliographical notes, by Dr. R. Rost in Miscellaneous Papers relating to Indo-China, Vol. I, London, 1886, pp. 84 and ff.

RÉMUSAT, A., -Recherches sur les langues tartares. Paris, 1820.

MÜLLER, MAX,—Letter to Chevalier Bunsen, on the Classification of the Turanian Languages. London, 1854, pp. 97 and ff. Reprinted from Vol. III of Bunsen's Christianity and Mankind, London, 1854.

Logan, J.,—The West Himalaic or Tibetan Tribes of Assam, Burma and Pegu. Journal of the Indian Archipelago, Vol. II, 1858, pp. 100 and ff., 230 and ff.

FORBES, CAPT. C. J. F. S.,—On Tibeto-Burman Languages. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. X, 1878, pp. 210 and ff.

", Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India: A Fragment.

And other Essays. London, 1881.

GRUBE, W., -Die sprachgeschichtliche Stellung des Chinesischen. Leipzig, 1881.

Kuhn, Ernst,—Ueber Herkunft und Sprache der transgangetischen Völker. Festrede zur Vorfeier des Allerhöchsten Geburts und Namensfestes Seiner Majestät des Königs Ludwig II gehalten in der öffentlichen Sitzung der K. Akademie der Wissenschaften zu München am 25. Juli 1881. München 1883. Compare also Prof. Kuhn's remarks in the Jenaer Literaturzeitung, 1875, p. 424.

AVERY, JOHN,—The Tibeto-Burman Group of Languages. Transactions of the American Philological Association, Vol. xvi, 1885, Appendix, pp. xvii and ff.

- TERRIEN DE LACOUPERIE,—The Languages of China before the Chinese. Researches on the Languages spoken by the Pre-Chinese Races of China Proper previously to the Chinese Occupation. London, 1887. Reprint from the Transactions of the Philological Society, 1885-7, pp. 394 and ff.
- Houghton, B.,—Outlines of Tibeto-Burman Linguistic Palæontology. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1896, pp. 23 and ff.
- CONRADY, DR. AUGUST,—Eine indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung und ihr Zusammenhang mit den Tonaccenten. Ein Beitrag zur vergleichenden Grammatik der indochinesischen Sprachen insonderheit des Tibetischen Barmanischen Siamesischen und Chinesischen. Leipzig, 1896.

TIBETAN OR BHŌṬIĀ.

Tibetan is the language of Tibet and the adjoining districts of India. It does not properly fall within the scope of this Survey. Important dialects are, however, spoken in British India, and it will therefore be necessary to give a short account of Tibetan and its sub-dialects.¹

The language of Tibet has usually been designated Tibetan. The origin of the name Tibet is obscure, and it would be waste of time to Name of the language. enter upon the various explanations propounded by different It came to Europe through the Muhammadans of Western Asia. Tibetans themselves call their country Bod-yul and their language Bod-skad, pronounced Bhö-kä in Central Tibetan. 'A Tibetan' is Bod-pa, and this word has been changed to Bhautta, Bhōtiā, etc., by the Hindus. The name 'Bhōtiā' is now applied by them to the Tibetans living on the borders between India and Tibet, while the people of Tibet proper are called Huniyas, and the country Hundes. Several names have been proposed for the language. The one which has been universally recognized is Tibetan. In the oldest publications about the language, it interchanges with Tangutan, a name which has not been adopted by scholars in that sense. The name Bhotanta, which was used in the first Tibetan dictionary, has also been discarded as being apt to produce the impression that the dialect of Bhutan is meant. It has also been proposed to call the language Bhōtiā and to distinguish the sub-dialects by adding the locality where they are spoken, viz., Bhōtiā of Tibet, or Tibetan proper; Bhōtiā of Bhutan or Drug-kä; Bhōtiā of Sikkim or Dänjong-kä; Bhōtiā of Ladakh or Ladakhī, and so forth. such a terminology the fact must be urged that the Bhōtiā of Tibet comprises many dialects which are mutually more different than is Danjong-ka from the Tibetan of Central Tibet. It would accordingly be impossible to speak of the Bhōtiā of Tibet as opposed to other dialects, and the name Tibetan would have to be discarded altogether. Moreover the inhabitants of Tibet proper are usually known to the Hindus of Upper India as Hūniyas and not as Bhōtiās. I therefore prefer to employ the name Tibetan as the common designation of the language, as the one which is universally recognized as such. The fact that the language is also spoken outside Tibet cannot be urged against its being called Tibetan. Nobody hesitates to call the French language spoken in Belgium French.

Various dialects of Tibetan are spoken all over Tibet including Baltistan and Ladakh. The Zoji La pass, on the high road from Srinagar to Dras, is the ethnographic watershed between the Aryan and Tibetan population. Thence we may draw an irregular line eastwards including the northernmost districts of Lahoul, Spiti, Kunawar, Garhwal, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. Tibetan is accordingly mainly a language foreign to India, where it is only

¹ I take this opportunity of acknowledging the great assistance which has been rendered me in the preparation of what follows by the Rev. A. H. Francke. He has kindly undertaken to read through the whole section in proof, and he has favoured me with numerous valuable notes and corrections. The chapters dealing with Balti and Purik have been practically rewritten by him, the materials originally prepared for this Survey having turned out to contain several wrong forms.

spoken by immigrants in the frontier districts. Towards the east it extends into the Chinese province of Ssechuan.

Tibetan is not a uniform language over the whole territory within which it is spoken. The classical dialect of Tibetan literature represents Dialects the stage of development at which the language had arrived in the time when it was first reduced to writing. It was then a monosyllabic form of speech with a highly complicated phonetic system, abounding in compound consonants. These compounds were, at least in numerous cases, the final result of a combination of prefixes with monosyllabic bases. The prefixes must once have formed separate syllables. Their vowels were, however, very early lost, and the result was a monosyllabic word beginning with a compound consonant. Such compounds have been partly retained in the west and in the east. In the centre, on the other hand, the prefixed consonants representing the last remnant of the old prefixes have been dropped, and the old base-words have been restored, apparently without any traces of the lost prefixes. This dropping of the prefixes is however only apparent. Their existence is still traceable by means of the tone, such words being, as a rule, pronounced in the so-called high tone. A short account of the Tibetan tone-system will be given later on. In this place it will be sufficient to remark that the dropping of the old prefixes and the resulting use of tones is characteristic of all Central Tibetan dialects, which are spoken from Spiti in the west to Bhutan in the east. This group includes numerous sub-dialects which will be separately dealt with in the ensuing pages in so far as they are spoken within the territory included under the operations of this Survey. Proceeding from the west these dialects are Spiti, Nyamkat, Jad, the Garhwal dialect, Kagate, Sharpa, Danjongka, and Lhoke. The dialect spoken in Rubshu is also a form of Central Tibetan. It is probably identical with the Spiti form of the language. Our information regarding the dialects of this group spoken in Tibet is less complete. We only know the dialect of Central Tibet, i.e., the provinces of Ü and Tsang, which is a kind of lingua franca over the whole Tibetan territory. The dialect spoken in the so-called Chumbi Valley between Sikkim and Bhutan apparently agrees with the forms of speech current in those States and not with the U-dialect. The valley itself is called Domo, and is divided into Upper and Lower Domo.

The western portion of Tibet, from a line drawn from Darjeeling and northwards, is called Ngari. It is divided into the three districts of Mangyul, Khorsum, and Maryul. Mangyul marches with Nepal almost to its western boundary; Khorsum extends along the frontier of Kumaon, Garhwal, and Bashahr; Maryul includes Western Tibet, especially the Kashmiri States of Baltistan and Ladakh.

The dialects of Mangyul probably agree with Sharpa and Kāgate, which are spoken in Eastern Nepal. The language of Khorsum is probably closely related to Spiti, Nyamkat, Jad, the Tibetan dialect spoken in Garhwal, etc., while the dialects of Rudok to the north of Khorsum probably merge into Ladakhī and Baltī.

Those latter forms of speech belong to another group, which Jaeschke called Western Tibetan. It is spoken in Baltistan and Ladakh, and probably also in the adjoining districts of Tibet. Three closely related dialects of this group are spoken within British territory, viz., Baltī in Baltistan, Purik in the old province of Purik, and Ladakhī in Ladakh. All these dialects agree in retaining a good deal of the

compound consonants of classical Tibetan, and in being devoid of tones. In this latter respect the Tibetan dialect spoken in Lahoul marches with Western Tibetan. On the other hand it simplifies the old compound consonants just as is the case in Central Tibetan. Final consonants are often dropped in Lahoul, as is also the case in Central Tibetan. In that case, the preceding vowel often assumes an abrupt pronunciation in Lahoul as well as in Ü and Tsang. The Lahoul dialect can therefore be described as a kind of connecting link between Western and Central Tibetan.

The dialect spoken in the province of Khams in Eastern Tibet agrees with Western Tibetan in being devoid of tones and in retaining many of the old compound consonants of classical Tibetan. Such compounds are, however, treated in a different way from that which is the case in Western Tibetan, and the Khams dialect must therefore be separated as a distinct group, which we shall call Eastern Tibetan. Connected dialects are spoken to the North and East, in Sifan and Ssechuan. Short vocabularies have been published of several of them by Hodgson, Rosthorn, and others. They do not fall within the scope of this Survey, and it will, in this place, be sufficient to mention that they form the link which connects Tibetan with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Further India.

We have no trustworthy information about the number of speakers of the various

Tibetan dialects outside British India. The population of

Number of speakers. Tibet is estimated at about six millions. Numerous speakers

are also found in Nepal and Bhutan. According to rough local estimates prepared
during the preliminary operations of this Survey, the number of speakers of Tibetan and
its sub-dialects within the districts included was as follows:—

Tibetar	unspecified				•						•	•	7,968
1,	Lahoul dialec	et		•									1,579
37	Spiti dialect							•	•	•	•		3,54S
,,	Nyamkat				•		•		•		•		1,544
"	Jad .			•	•		•		•	•	•		106
,,	Garhwal dial	lect	•	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	4, 300
"	Sharpa		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	900
,,	Dänjongkä	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	20,00 0
"	Lhoke .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,079
										To	TAL	•	45,024

This total is considerably below the mark, and it does not include important dialects such as Baltī and Ladakhī.

At the last Census of 1901 the number of speakers of Tibetan and its dialects was returned as follows:—

											To	[AL	•	235,224
Others	•	•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	35,822
Lhoke	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	40.590
Dänjongk	ä	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	8.825
Sharpa					•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	4,407
Ladakhi		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	90
\mathbf{Balti}		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	130,678
Tibetan			•			•					•	•	•	14,812

Of the 40,590 speakers returned under the head of Lhoke, 31,615 were enumerated in the Punjab. It is not possible that these speak the Tibetan Lhoke dialect of Bhutan,

and these figures will not therefore be added under the detailed description of that dialect.

The figures entered under the head of Ladakhī do not include the speakers of that dialect in Ladakh, where they have been returned as speaking Budhī. Their number was 29,716. They are included in the 35,822 speakers under the head of Tibetan, others.

Tibetan was already a literary language in the early part of the 7th century.¹

The Rev. H. Jäsckhe, in the introduction to his TibetanEnglish Dictionary, sums up the history of Tibetan

literature as follows:-

'There are two chief periods of literary activity to be noticed in studying the origin and growth of Tibetan literature and the landmarks in the history of the language. The first is the Period of Translations which, however, might also be entitled the Classical Period, for the sanctity of the religious message conferred a corresponding reputation and tradition of excellence upon the form in which it was conveyed. This period begins in the first half of the seventh century, when Thommi Sambhota, the minister of Srongtsangampo, was sent to India to learn Sanskrit. His invention of the Tibetan alphabet gave a twofold impulse; for several centuries the wisdom of India and the ingenuity of Tibet laboured in unison and with the greatest industry and enthusiasm at the work of translation. The tribute due to real genius must be awarded to these early pioneers of Tibetan grammar. They had to grapple with the infinite wealth and refinement of Sanskrit; they had to save the independence of their own tongue, while they strove to subject it to the rule of scientific principles, and it is most remarkable how they managed to produce translations at once literal and faithful to the spirit of the original. The first masters had made for their later disciples a comparatively easy road, for the style and context of the writings with which the translators had to deal present very uniform features. When once typical patterns had been furnished, it was possible for the literary manufacture to be extended by a sort of mechanical process.

A considerable time elapsed before natives of Tibet began to indulge in compositions of their own. When they did so, the subject-matter chosen by them to operate upon was either of an historical or a legendary kind. In this Second Period the language shows much resemblance to the modern tongue, approaching most closely the present idiom of Central Tibet.'

According to Sarat Chandra Das the second period begins about the year 1025 A.D. It is the age of Milaraspa and Atisa, etc. Sarat Chandra reckons a new stage from 1205 A.D.,—

'When Pandit Śākya Śri of Kashmir had returned to Tibet after witnessing the plunder and destruction of the great Buddhist monasteries of Odantapuri and Vikrama Śīla in Magadha, and the conquest of Bengal and Behar by the Mahomedans under Baktyar Ghilji (sic.) in 1203 A.D. . . . Among the most noted writers of the time were Sakya Pandit Kungah Gyal-tshan, Dogon Phag-pa, the spiritual tutor of Emperor Khubli Khan, and Shongton Lotsāwa, who translated the Kāvyādarśa of Daṇḍin and Kshemendra's Avadāna Kalpalatā in metrical Tibetan. With the opening of the 15th century Buton-Rinchen Düb introduced a new era in the literature of Tibet, and Buddhism received fresh impulse under the rule of the Phagmodu chiefs, when Tibetan scholars took largely to the study of Chinese literature under the anspices of the Ming Emperors of China. During this period, called the age of Dā-nying (old orthography), the great indigenous literature of Tibet arose. A host of learned Lotsāwas and scholars like Tsongkhapa, Buton, Gyalwa Ngapa, Lama Tārānātha, Desri Sangye Gyatsho, Sumpa Khampo, and others flourished. This was the age of the Gelug-pa or Yellow Cap School of Buddhism, founded by Tsongkhapa with Gahdan as its head-quarters.

The third period begins with the first quarter of the 18th century, when Chinese suzerainty over Tibet was fully established and the last of the Taitar kings of the dynasty of Gushi Khan was killed by a General of the Jungar Tartars—an incident which transferred the sovereignty of Tibet to the Dalai Lama, who was till then a mere hierarch of the Gelug-pa church. It is within this period that Tibet has enjoyed unprecedented peace under the benign sway of the holy Bodhisattvas, and its language has become the lingua franca of Higher Asia.'

¹ The Tibetan alphabet which was introduced in the seventh century was probably baled on an older alphabet which had, in its turn, been developed after some old Indian script.

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The Tibetans are mentioned in old Chinese writings under the name of Kiang. The name of Tibet has come to us through the Muhammadans. In the form Tobbat it is used by Istakhri towards the end of the 6th century A.D. The usual form with the Muhammadans is Tibbat. Compare the quotations in H. Yule's Hobson-Jobson, sub voce. Some remarks on Tibet were published by Johan de Plano Carpini (1247), by Wilhelmus de Rubrak (1253), Marco Polo (1298), and others. They do not tell us much about the country. In the 17th and 18th centuries Jesuit missionaries from Peking visited the country, and the Capuchin Friar Horazio della Penna Bella lived at Lhasa for 17 years from 1732, and also learnt the language.

The first Tibetan writings which were brought to Europe were found in South Siberia and sent to Rome and Paris by the Emperor Peter the Great in 1721. They were recognized as Tibetan by La Croze, Theophilus Siegfried Bayer, Gerhard Friedrich Müller, and others, and the French orientalists Étienne and Michel Fourmont made an attempt at translating them. La Croze also published a note on the Tibetan alphabet.

The materials sent home by the Jesuit missionaries were utilized by August Antonius Georgi in his Alphabetum Tibetanum, Rome, 1762. Some Tibetan words were made known by John Bell in his Travels from Russia to divers parts of Asia, Glasgow, 1763, and in a polyglot vocabulary compiled in St. Petersburg in the middle of the 18th century, further by Lorenzo Hervas, and others. A review of these and other works will be found in Adelung's Mithridates, quoted below. The Lord's Prayer in Tibetan was published by Cassiano Beligatti, Lorenzo Hervas, and others.

The first European who made the Tibetan language the subject of serious study was the Hungarian scholar Alexander Csoma de Kőrös, who for many years lived in a Tibetan monastery in Kumaon. To him are due the first Tibetan grammar and a dictionary.

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The Tibetan alphabet is usually stated to have been adopted from India by Thon-misam-bho-ta, minister of King Shrong-btsan-sgam-po, about the year 632. It is, however, possible that the art of writing was known in Tibet at an earlier period. Two distinct characters are in use, the so-called u-chän, written dbu-chan, head possessing, and the so-called u-med, written dbu-med, head-less. The former is always used in printing and is distinguished by the characteristic top-line of North Indian alphabets. The latter is the current hand of every day's writing and the top-line is dispensed with. In this place we are only concerned with the u-chän character. It consists of the following signs:—

П	F	म	Γ,
ka	kha	ga	nga
ठ	a వ	E	3
cha	chha	ja	nya
5	ঘ	5	ৰ
ta	tha	da	· na
4	**	A	81
pa	pha	ba	ma
ર્સ	క	Ĕ	
$\underline{ts}a$	$\underline{ts}ha$	$\underline{dz}a$	
검	ବ	Ħ	۾
wa	zha	za	'a
×	τ	त्य	
ya	ra	la	
4	শ	5	ঙে
sha	sa	ha	a

It will be seen that the above table does not contain any signs for the cerebrals or for vowels other than a. Cerebrals are found in all Tibetan dialects as the result of the simplifying of certain compound consonants. Compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation below. In borrowed words the cerebrals are written by means of the inverted signs of the dentals. Thus, 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta; 7 ta.

All vowels are short if not resulting from contractions; compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation. The vowel a is inherent in every consonant, and it is not separately marked. If other vowels are to follow a consonant, they are indicated by means of separate signs at the head or the foot of the consonant, viz:— e, i, o, and u. Thus, $\widehat{\eta}$ ke; $\widehat{\eta}$ ki; $\widehat{\eta}$ ko; $\widehat{\eta}$ ku.

Initial vowels are indicated in the same way, the signs \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{R} a being used as the bases of the vowel signs; thus, \mathcal{R} , o; \mathcal{R} i. The sign \mathcal{R} denotes the opening of the previously closed throat for pronouncing a vowel with the slight explosive sound which the Arabs indicate by means of the Hamza. \mathcal{R} is the mere vowel without that opening. Thus the words (the) lily an endogen would be written \mathcal{R} \mathcal{R} , while the word Lilian would be written \mathcal{R} \mathcal{R} \mathcal{R} . This difference is only observed in Eastern Tibet. In Western Tibet both \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{R} are pronounced as α .

It has already been remarked that the vowel a is inherent in all consonants. That is not, however, the case if the consonant closes a syllable beginning with a vowel or another consonant. It is therefore necessary to mark the end of each syllable. This is done by adding a dot at the right side of the upper end of the closing letter. This dot is called \underline{tsheg} . Thus APPA lag-pa; PPA ka-ra; PPA kar.

Two or more consonants are often combined without any intervening vowel.

When r is the first component of a consonantal compound, it is indicated by means of the sign above the consonant. In this way it is written above k, g, ng, t, d, n, b, m, ts and dz. Thus, \sqrt{r} rka; \sqrt{r} rta; \sqrt{r} rtsa. R also occurs before \sqrt{r} nya. In that case it is written in full over the \sqrt{r} ; thus, \sqrt{r} rnya.

L occurs as the last component of compounds beginning with k, g, b, z, r, and s, and as the first component before mute gutturals, palatals, dentals and labials, ng and h. The sign \square is in such cases written under a preceding and over a following consonant. Thus, \square gla; \square sla; \square lha.

The letters g, d, b, m, and 'a often occur as the first component of compound consonants. They are then simply written before the other components; thus, $\exists \forall \exists \exists dkar-po$, white; $\exists \exists \exists agyur$, become.

If a syllable beginning with such a compound ends with an a, the sign a is added in order to avoid the mistake of pronouncing the last component as the final consonant of the syllable. Thus, 573 dga, but 57 dag.

The numeral signs are

2	3	3	ك	V	S	ď	4	6	•
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0

Pronunciation differs in the different dialects. In thisplace we shall only make some few general remarks.

The Tibetan vowels are, broadly speaking, short. In Western Tibet vowels are comparatively long when closing a syllable, but really long vowels only occur as the result of a contraction; thus, Central Tibetan $l\ddot{a}$, written AN lus, work. In borrowed words long vowels occur and are indicated by an \mathcal{R} under the consonant; thus, \mathcal{R} nāma, called; \mathcal{R} mūla, root.

With regard to consonants, it should be noted that the hard unaspirated mutes are pronounced without any admixture of aspiration.

The corresponding soft consonants are pronounced in different ways. When final they are usually hardened. When initial they are pronounced like the corresponding English sounds. In the East, however, they are pronounced with a strong aspiration so that they are scarcely discernible from the corresponding hard sounds. Thus, gang, which? is pronounced ghang or even kang. This tendency is traceable from Spiti eastwards. It will be seen in what follows that it goes hand in hand with the tone system. When the soft consonant is the second component of a consonantal compound, the dialects of Western and Eastern Tibet have developed in opposite directions. In the West, a prefix before a soft consonant tends to harden it. In the East, on the other hand, the soft sound is retained if it is preceded by one of the prefixes s, r, d, g, and b, while it is hardened after m and 'a.

Compound consonants are treated in different ways in the different dialects. Those which end in a subscribed y and r are often retained, especially in the West. The r which is added above other consonants is also dialectally pronounced.

Other compounds are generally simplified. Some of them are, however, still pronounced in the Khams dialect. The initial \mathfrak{A} of compound consonants is often pronounced as a nasal in compound words after vowels; thus, \mathfrak{AMA} bka-'agyur, is commonly pronounced Kanjur. Both the component letters of the conjunct db are dropped in most dialects; thus, dbu, pronounced v, head.

Further details regarding Tibetan pronunciation will be mentioned under the head of the various sub-dialects.

It has already been remarked that Central Tibetan possesses a system of tones which does not exist in the West and in the East. The fundamental lines of this system were already discovered by Jaeschke. He distinguished between two tones, the high and the deep one. The latter, he stated, was found in words beginning with uncompounded soft consonants in the written language, the former in words beginning with soft consonants preceded by a prefix or else beginning with hard consonants.

The Rev. Graham Sandberg went farther and distinguished three tones, the high-pitched, the medial, and the low resonant. 'The high-pitched tone,' he said, 'is rendered by an elevated treble or feminine style of voice, continuously sustained at one pitch; and the medial being scarcely lower, that must be the key in which the ordinary flow

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of words ought to run, merely subduing the voice to the low resonant tone, which is guttural in character, whenever a word or words proper to that tone are introduced.'

Still more details have been given by the Rev. E. Amundsen, who began his studies of Tibetan with an ear trained for the tone-system by his previous study of Chinese. He distinguishes six different tones, which number can, however, be reduced to four, as in two cases the difference depends only on the length of the tone, and not on its musical height. The Rev. A. H. Francke has shown that Mr. Amundsen's system bears a striking similarity to the system propounded by the ancient native grammarians. The six tones are described as follows:—

- Tone 1. High pitched, often nasal, and short as if butted against something;
- Tone 2. High like tone 1, but long.
- Tone 3. Medium pitch and short like tone 1.
- Tone 4. Medium pitch and long.
- Tone 5. Curved tone; deep but gradually raised to medium pitch, like saying 'two' in a surprised questioning tone.
 - Tone 6. Descending long tone.

With regard to the two main divisions of Tibetan tones, Professor Conrady's investigations have shown that the state of affairs must be explained as follows. Intransitive bases originally, as a rule, commenced with soft consonants. Transitive bases were then formed from them by adding prefixes. The soft consonant preceded by a prefix frequently developed into an aspirated hard consonant. The prefixes were originally independent syllables. In the course of time, however, they lost their character as such. At the same time the following base-word was pronounced in a high-pitched tone, while the old soft initials were combined with a low tone.

The hard initials must, as a rule, be considered as a secondary development from soft sounds preceded by prefixes. They are sometimes in their turn preceded by new prefixes. They do not, however, change their tone on that account, and such hard sounds preceded by prefixes are apparently a comparatively late departure in the development of the Tibetan language.

Tibetan is a comparatively well known language, and it is not necessary in this place to give a detailed account of its declension and conjugation.

Several features of Tibetan grammar will be mentioned under the head of the various sub-dialects. In this place it will be sufficient to draw attention to some general features which characterize the classical language and run through all, or most, dialects.

Nouns.—Nouns are monosyllabic base-words, with or without prefixed consonants, or else they are followed by suffixes. The most common suffixes are pa, ba, ma, po, bo, mo. Ba and bo are pronounced wa, wo respectively after vowels and after the consonants ng, r, and l. Po and mo are sometimes distinguished by po being employed as the male and mo as the female suffix; thus classical Tibetan rgyal-po, king; rgyal-mo, queen.

These suffixes give a distinct nominal character to a base. They are thus used to form verbal nouns and participles.

Pa, ba, and ma are used in a very wide way. Pa is often used like Hindōstānī $w\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ in order to denote a person who is in some way connected with the thing denoted vol. III, PART I.

by the base-word; thus, chhu-pa, water-man, water-carrier; rta-pa, horse-man; Dbus-pa, a man from Dbus, *i.e.*, the province of \ddot{U} . If a corresponding feminine is intended, ma is added to, or substituted for, pa; thus, Dbus-ma, a woman from \ddot{U} .

The suffix po more especially denotes the performer of an action; thus, byed-po (or byed-pa-po), a doer. Colloquially it is frequently replaced by the suffix mkhan; thus, byed-mkhan, the doer.

Other suffixes which are used as mere formatives are ka, kha, and ga. They are used after some few nouns, especially such as denote the seasons, and after some numerals and pronouns; thus, dgun-ka, winter; ston-kha, autumn, etc.

All these suffixes are dropped when the word containing them is combined with another word into a compound; thus, ston-mo, feast; but ming-ston, name-feast.

Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or by means of qualifying additions; thus, pha, father; ma, mother: bu, son; bu-mo, daughter: rgyal-po, king; rgyal-mo, queen.

Number.—Nouns do not change for number. If it is necessary to denote plurality, suffixes are added such as *rnams*, dag, <u>tsho</u>, etc. They are originally independent words denoting plurality.

Case.—Cases are formed by adding suffixes, which are the same in the singular and the plural. The case suffixes to some extent differ in the different dialects.

The suffix of the genitive in the classical dialect is kyi after words ending in d, b, and s; gyi after those ending in n, m, r, and l; gi after such as end in g and ng; and iafter vowels. The suffixes in use in the dialects can all be derived from these forms. It is apparently possible to define the original meaning of this suffix. It occurs in vulgar forms such as ha-gyi, pha-gyi, that, yonder; ma-gi, the lower one, etc. In Chinese a genitive is formed by adding the suffix chī: thus, thien ti chī shing, heaven earth of nature, the nature of heaven and earth. The same suffix also forms adjectives and relative participles. Originally it is a demonstrative pronoun, or a pronoun of the third person. It is impossible not to compare with this the Tibetan genitive suffix, which in the Jad dialect is sometimes pronounced chi. The literal meaning of a phrase such as bkablon-gyi lha-lcham-sku-gzhogs, the minister's wife, is then probably 'minister-that wife.' If this explanation is correct, the genitive is originally formed by adding a pronoun. The Chinese pronoun chi is used as a pronoun of the third person in the dative and the accusative. We can accordingly compare its use as a genitive suffix with the German idiom 'dem Vater sein Haus,' to the father his house, the house of the father. The Tibetan idiom differs from the German in not using any possessive pronoun corresponding to the German 'sein', his. Even the genitive suffix is often dispensed with.

The Tibetan language does not possess anything corresponding to the Aryan cases of the nominative and the accusative. The subject and the object are sufficiently indicated by their position. There is, however, a tendency to use the dative as the case of the object. The dative is in all dialects formed by adding the suffix la. La is a post-position denoting the relation of space in the widest sense. It often takes the form of a in the west.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. The Tibetan verb is properly a noun, and a sentence such as 'the man strikes his son' must be expressed

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by 'the-man-by son striking.' The suffix of the agent is s, or, in Jad and Nyamkat, su. In most dialects it is added to the genitive, in others directly to the base.

The dative suffix is often used also to denote the locative. There is in addition a locative suffix na, and by adding s to this suffix an ablative suffix nas is formed. This s is probably identical with the suffix of the agent.

Tibetan further possesses a case denoting motion to or into. It is usually called the terminative, and it is formed by adding ru or r to bases ending in vowels; tu after g and b, and, in certain words, after d, r, and l; su after s; du after n, r, l, and the other consonants. In some dialects this case is only used in adverbs. In ordinary use it is commonly replaced by the dative.

Numerous other relations are indicated by adding postpositions to the base or to the genitive. The latter class are properly case forms of nouns.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not differ in form from nouns. They follow the noun they qualify or, if they precede it, are put into the genitive case. Colloquially the genitive suffix is, however, often dispensed with, just as is the case with ordinary nouns.

Comparison is effected by adding a particle of comparison to the compared noun. In classical Tibetan bas, pas, and las are used in this way. Baltī has pā and Purik basang, i.e. perhaps bas yang; Ladakhī, Jaḍ and Spitī use sang, which is perhaps abbreviated from basang, while Kāgate has borrowed the Aryan bhanda from Nepal dialects. The particles ending in s probably contain the same suffix as is used to form the ablative. The suffix sang is probably connected. A sentence such as rta-bas khyi chhung-ba yin, the dog is smaller than the horse, therefore literally means 'horse-from dog small is.'

Numerals.—The numerals of the various sub-dialects will be found in the lists of words. Higher numbers are counted in tens as in Chinese. A smaller number before a ten, hundred, etc., denotes multiplication, while after them, it denotes addition, just as is the case in Chinese. Thus, bdun-chu, seven-ten, seventy; bchu-bdun, ten-seven, seventeen. Thampa is often added to the tens from ten to hundred; phrag to hundreds and thousands, and so forth. Thus, bchu and bchu tham-pa, ten.

Pronouns.—The common forms of the personal pronouns will be found under the head of the various dialects. In this place we shall only note that several respectful forms are in use in addition to the ordinary pronouns. Such forms are khyed, thou; nyid-rang, thou; khong, he, and so forth.

There are in all dialects two demonstrative pronouns corresponding to English 'this' and 'that,' respectively. In classical Tibetan they are 'adi, this; de, that. In addition to them the colloquial dialects use various more specialized pronouns such as pha-gyi, yonder: ma-gi, that down there, etc.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. Thus, instead of 'the man who sees' we say 'the seeing man.' Such indefinite relative clauses as are introduced in English by words such as 'he who,' 'whoever,' 'that which,' etc., can be translated by means of an interrogative pronoun in connexion with a participle.

Verbs.—The verb is the most interesting feature of Tibetan grammar. It is virtually a noun, and, accordingly, it does not vary for person and number. There is, it is true, in some dialects a tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by using vol. III, PART I.

different suffixes, but their employment is irregular and inconsistent, and the tendency can only be described as incipient.

The verb is a kind of noun. It does not, however, govern its subject in the genitive, as in the case when an ordinary noun qualifies another noun. The subject of intransitive verbs does not take any distinguishing suffix; the subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent.

Though the verb is a noun, it is often capable of denoting action with reference to a definite time. Many verbs have different bases in the present, in the past, in the future, and in the imperative. These different tense bases are formed, partly by adding prefixes and suffixes or by changing the initial consonant, and partly by means of a change of the vowel of the base. This fact is of interest because it shows how a monosyllabic and isolating language sometimes presents characteristic features which look strikingly like a real inflexion. Thus, the present base gtong, gives, has a past base btang, a future base gtang, and an imperative base thong. Some verbs have four, some three, some two, and some only one base. The modern colloquials usually substitute the past base for all the rest.

It is impossible to give definite rules about the use of prefixes in the various tense bases. B is the most common one. In the future it often interchanges with g and d. The only suffix used in this way is s, which is often added in the past and imperative bases; thus, lta-ba, to see; past bltas, imperative ltos. When the vowel of the base is an a, it is changed to o in the imperative, and often also to e in the present; thus, 'agegs-pa, to stop, past bkag, future dgag, imperative khog. This example also shows that the initial consonant can be hardened and accompanied by an aspiration.

The details concerning these different bases will be found in the usual dictionaries and grammars. In this place I only draw attention to their existence. It may also be noted that the tense bases were most probably originally general transitive or active bases without reference to a definite time. This conclusion seems to follow from the fact that no rule can be given for the use of definite prefixes in each tense. The same prefix may occur in any of them, and the various tense bases are occasionally used as verbal bases in all tenses. Moreover the same prefixes are commonly used to form ordinary causal and active verbs. Lastly, the common tendency of the colloquial dialects to substitute the past base for the rest cannot be considered as an instance of the decay of a more fully developed language, but is a simplification of the different parallel forms in actual use.

Such tense bases are formally nouns. Several suffixes can be added. The most common one is pa, or (after the final consonants ng, r, l, and vowels) ba. By means of this suffix a common verbal noun and participle can be formed; thus, lta-ba, to see; gtong-ba, giving; btang-ba, having given, who has given.

Another common suffix is *chas* in Baltī; *chā* in Purik; *chas*, *ches*, *che*, in Ladakhī; *che* in Lahoul; *ja* in Kanawar; *che* and *ze* in Kāgate; *she* in Sikkim and Tsang, etc. It is perhaps connected with the Chinese *che*, which forms verbal nouns and participles.

The usual case suffixes can be added to such nouns and also to the mere tense bases, and in this way various participles and verbal nouns are formed. Thus, *ltas-pas*, looking-in-the-past-by, when he looked; *mthong-bar*, seeing-to, in order to see; *nam langs-nas*, night rising-from, when the night had risen; 'agro-na, going-in, if (I) go; song-la,

going-in, having gone; nyal-ba-las, lying from, after having lain; dgos-kyis, necessary-by, because it is necessary.

Other suffixes of the same kind are mkhan, te, ching, gin, etc.

Mkhan is used to form a noun of agency and a participle; thus, dngul-btang-mkhan-gyi mi, money giving-of man, the man who gives the money.

Te is used after the consonants n, r, l, and s. After d it is replaced by de, and after g, ng, b, m, and vowels by ste. It is the usual suffix of the conjunctive participle; thus, btang-ste, having given.

Ching is used after g, d, and b. After s it takes the form shing, and in all other cases it is replaced by zhing. It is used to form a conjunctive participle which is usually introduced in smaller clauses within a large one; thus, mi dga-zhing khros-te, when, being displeased, he became angry.

Gin is used to form a present participle; thus, mthong-gin 'adug, (I) am seeing.

The tense bases mentioned above are used as finite tenses. The last verb of a sentence must, however, in most cases, take an additional mark which indicates that the action implied really takes place. If there be more than one verb in the sentence, only the last one takes this mark, the whole sentence being considered as one single unit of which the reality need not be asserted more than once. In the classical dialect this assertive particle is the vowel o, before which a final consonant is doubled. Thus the past base of lta-ba, to look, is bltas. In order to express the past tense, however, o must be added; thus, bltas-so, saw. In a similar way am is added, with the same doubling of the final consonant, in interrogative sentences if there is no interrogative pronoun or adverb; thus, mthong-ngam, do you see?

In the colloquial language this o is commonly dropped. The same is also the case in the classical dialect when the principal verb is the verb substantive. It is therefore probable that o is a form of the copula. The Western dialects have og instead of o.

The interrogative particle am is usually pronounced a. It is dropped in the latter member of a double question; thus, mthong-ngam mi mthong, do you see or not?

The tense bases with the addition of the particle o are often used in order to denote the various tenses. There are, however, numerous periphrastic forms. Thus a present is formed by adding the verb substantive to the base with or without the suffix pa, ba, to the conjunctive participle, and to other participles.

A past is formed by adding suffixes such as *song*, went; *byung*, became; *zin*, *tshar*, finished, etc., to the base, or by adding the verb substantive to the base with the suffix *pa* or to the conjunctive participle.

A future is formed by adding 'ong or yong, comes, to the base; or by adding rgyu-yin, matter-is, to the base; or by adding 'agyur-ba, to become, to the terminative of the verbal noun ending in pa, and so forth.

Further details about such forms will be found under the head of the various dialects. **Causals.**—It has already been remarked that intransitive bases as a rule begin with a soft consonant, if the initial sound is not a vowel. There are, it is true, several intransitives which begin with a hard or hard aspirated consonant. It seems, however, probable that such bases have originally had a transitive, or at least an active intransitive meaning. Compare English phrases such as 'he does go.' The hard consonants can, on the whole, be considered as a later development from soft ones.

The regular method of forming transitives and causals is to prefix s, g, d, or b to such bases. Instead of s we also find z and r. Thus, gab-pa, to hide, to conceal one's self; sgab-pa, to cover: gad-mo, laughter; rgod-pa, to laugh: degs-pa, to fear; gdeng-ba, to threaten: gug-pa, bent; dgu-ba, to bend: du-ba, smoke; bdug-pa, to fumigate.

These prefixed consonants were originally separate syllables, and they still occur as such in connected forms of speech. Compare Singpho si- $l\bar{u}m$, to make warm, from $l\bar{u}m$, warm; Lushei ti-thi, to kill, from thi, to die, etc. The following base was pronounced with a strong stress, and in the course of time the prefixes lost their character of separate syllables and were reduced to prefixed consonants, which have, in their turn, been dropped in many Tibetan dialects. At the same time, these last-mentioned dialects have usually introduced a higher tone in such words, so that the existence of these prefixes can still be ascertained by means of the tone.

Other causal verbs are formed by hardening the initial consonant of the intransitive base, with or without an aspiration. Thus, dul-ba, tame; thul-ba, to tame; gab-pa, to hide; (b-)kab, covered. Such causal verbs are pronounced with the high tone, and there can be no doubt that they have originally developed from those formed by means of prefixes.

In this connexion it may be noted that the transitive prefixes were probably once separate words which could be used as suffixes as well. Compare dro-s-pa, heated; skye-d-pa, to generate, from skye-ba, to be born, etc.

Negative verb.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing mi in the present and future, and ma in the past and in the imperative. The negatives are often prefixed to auxiliaries and not to the principal verb.

Order of words.—The order of words is subject, object, verb.

Honorific language.—The preceding remarks draw attention to some of the principal grammatical features of Tibetan. There remains one difficulty, which is considerable to all who endeavour to learn the language. To quote Mr. Walsh, 'there are in Tibetan what are practically two distinct languages running side by side, and each in current and regular use. The Common, in which one addresses an inferior, and which the lower classes speak amongst themselves, and the Honorific, zhe-sa (rje-sa), in which any one addresses a superior, and in which the educated classes politely address one another. It is necessary to know both these, as in speaking of himself the speaker always uses the common form. It is not that the same word is employed but has a different respectful form, such as occurs, for example, in the case of verbs in Urdū. In Tibetan an entirely different word is used, and this equally as regards nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Thus, if I say to an inferior, "you have a fine horse," I would say khyod-kyi rta yag-po (red), but to a superior or politely addressing an equal nyid-rang-gi chhibs-pa bzang-po (red), from which it will be seen that there is not a single word the same in the two sentences.

I give below one or two common words to show how complete the difference is:

	Common.	Honorific.
eye	mig	spyan
nose	sna	shangs
mouth	kha	zhal
ear	rna or rna-chhog	snyan

Sim	ila	rly—

to see	$\dot{m}thong extbf{-}ba$	$gzigs ext{-}\mu a$
to smell	snom-pa	shangs-snom-pa
to eat	za- ba	bzhes- pa
to hear	go-ba or thos-pa	ysan-pa

From the examples given above it will be seen that, in respect of the words used, the Common and Honorific are practically two languages.'

We shall now turn to the various Tibetan dialects, beginning with the westernmost one, that spoken in Baltistan.

BALTĪ OR BHOŢIĀ OF BALTISTAN.

The province of Baltistan now forms part of the Kashmir State. It is included in the Ladakh Wazarat of the frontier districts. In old times it was an independent State. In 1841 it was conquered by Gulāb Singh, ruler of Jammu. About the same time the province of Purik was transferred from Ladakh to Baltistan.

Baltistan was already known to the Kashmir chronicler Śrīvara under the name of Little Tibet, and that denomination has continued to be used down to the present day. It is the Lokh Buṭun of the modern Kāśmīrīs. It is identical with the Little Poliu of the Chinese Annals.

The inhabitants of Baltistan are Tibetans with a strong admixture of Dard blood. They have embraced Muhammadanism. The Kashmir chroniclers call them Bhauttas. Compare Tibetan bod-pa, a Tibetan. Their language is closely related to the Tibetan of Tibet proper. In some respects, however, it represents a more ancient stage of phonetic development. On the other hand, it is almost devoid of tones, and in this respect it agrees with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Burma as against the dialects of Central Tibet.

In such and in many other characteristics Baltī agrees with the dialect spoken in Ladakh. The Tibetan dialect of the province of Purik forms a link between Baltī and Ladakhī. It will be dealt with immediately after Baltī.

In the report of the last Census of Kashmir the term Baltī apparently includes the languages spoken in Baltistan and Purik. In this Survey, however, it will be used to denote the dialect spoken in Baltistan proper, excluding the province of Purik to the west of the Suru River.

Baltī is the prevailing language all over Baltistan. No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901 Baltī was returned from the following districts:—

J_{ammu}			•	•				•					,	8
Srinagar	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•			•		181
Ladakh	Wazarat	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•				121,302
Gilgit	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•			9,187
											To	TAL	•	130,678

This total, however, also comprises the speakers of Purik in the Kashmir State. The total population of Baltistan was 134,372.

Austen, H. H. Godwin.—A Vocabulary of English. Balti and Kashmiri. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxv, Part i, 1866, pp. 233 and ff.

Baltī has till now only been known through Mr. Godwin Austen's vocabulary. We do not know anything about the existence of local variations in the dialect. It is, however, probable that Baltī gradually merges into Purik and Ladakhī. The Gospels of St. Mathew and St. John, and also a treatise on the significance of the sacrifice, have been translated into the dialect by Mr. Gustafson, and printed in the Persian character at Lahore. Some old historical books in the Baltī dialect are still in the possession of the present Rājas. They are written in a peculiar character, which was perhaps invented at the time of the conversion of the Baltīs to Muhammadanism about 1400 A.D. The

orthography of the Persian alphabet used by Mr. Gustafson in his translations is based on this old character. He has been good enough to send me a specimen in the old character, which it will be of interest to reproduce in this place.

उंजी मिरिकिष्ट देश में زیر نو خرا س کو ری بوده کی کھ جھیس R产设胜主动了作品电子对象 بیہ کھن کُن می شی دو پیڑے کھو نگ ر 了此2RE3册月南e5 F.P82 ؤو کپی **ن**سون **ن**وه تھوب 3 É 广 中 市 村 中 岛 科 图 语 中 الله زیرے کوری بو چک بو منس + 3KA KF R C P 3 Y H 5 رویزے کوسی رمیول بور راکس ا

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Chā khudā-si zernah, khuri bui-kha chhes-luh bva-khan shi. kun Chā zerna. khudā-si khurri bui-kha chhes-lukh b^eya-khan kun mi shi, What say-if, God-by hisson-on faith-sort making allnot die, do-patse khong-lah hrtane duk-pi khson-luk thop-tuk, zere, do-patse(-batseg) khong-la rtanne duk-pi khson-lukh thop-duk, zerre, that-from him-to faithful being-ones-of living-short receive, saying, khuri bu **chik-**bu ditse mins: khosi mi-vul-po-lah rgas. khurri bu chik-bu mins; ditse mi-yul-po-la khosi rgās. hissononly-one gave; thushim-by men-land-to liked.

In the above the first line gives the literal transliteration, the second one the actual pronunciation, and the third the translation. The specimen, it will be seen, corresponds to the Gospel of St. John, iii, 16.

I am indebted to Mr. R. T. Clarke, I.C.S., for a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Baltī. They have been revised by the Rev. A. H. Francke, and the notes on the dialect which follow are based on them.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of open syllables are mostly long, and those of closed syllables short; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; min, is not. The final a of the article and of case suffixes is, however, short.

The Tibetan \mathfrak{P} 'a has always been dropped or else replaced by \mathfrak{P} . Both have been transliterated a. In such connexions as minduk, classical mi 'adug, the 'a is pronounced and transliterated as n.

The consonants are, broadly speaking, the same as in classical Tibetan. Soft consonants at the end of a syllable are always hardened; thus, chik, classical gchig, one; rgyap-la, behind. The Tibetan g often also becomes \underline{kh} , i.e., the ch in German 'ach' or in Scotch 'loch.' This is especially the case when g is a prefix or is followed by another consonant. Thus, $\underline{kh}ser$, classical gser, gold; $lto\underline{kh}s$, classical ltogs-pa, hunger; $lt\bar{a}lu\underline{kh}$, classical lta-lugs, service; $\underline{kh}lang$, classical glang, bull, etc. The same sound also occurs in the borrowed word $\underline{Kh}ud\bar{a}$, God.

A corresponding soft guttural aspirant gh occurs in words such as $gh\bar{a}$, classical lnga, five; thagh-ring, classical thag-ring, far.

The consonant r when prefixed to another consonant often becomes sh or s; thus, sta or rsta, classical rta, horse.

Compound consonants, initial as well as final, which are so marked a characteristic of classical Tibetan, are also frequent in Baltī. This latter dialect can even boast of some additional final compounds.

Suffixes.—In addition to the suffixes used in the declension and conjugation we may note chan, khan, and chas. Chan is used as in classical Tibetan to form possessive compounds; thus, nyes-pā-chan, sin having, a sinner; an-chan, power having, mighty. Khan and chas seem to be used in order to form participles and verbal nouns; thus, rgā-khan-kun, friends; nyam-pō-yot-khan chi, a servant; stor-khan-pō, lost; yot-chas-kun, goods; gon-chas-kun, robes. Compare the Ladakhī suffixes khan and ches.

Tones.—Baltī does not appear to possess a marked system of tones. In this respect it agrees with Purik and Ladakhī.

Articles.—There is no definite article. The numeral chik, one, is often used as an indefinite article. It is then frequently shortened to $ch\bar{\imath}$ or chi. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik, a man; yul $ch\bar{\imath}$ -la, to a country.

Nouns.—**Gender** is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. It is denoted by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; $b\bar{u}$ -string, woman: $\underline{kh}lang$, bull; $b\bar{a}$, cow: $khy\bar{\imath}$, dog; $khy\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, bitch: ra-skyes, he-goat; $r\bar{a}$, goat, female goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context; thus, $kh\bar{o}$ -la hlam skon, him-on shoes put; $ng\bar{\iota}$ $at\bar{a}$ -la $nyamp\bar{o}$ -duk-khan mot- $p\bar{o}$ yot, my father-to servant many are.

The usual plural suffix is kun or gun, all, which is often abbreviated to ngun, un. Thus, $b\bar{u}$ -string-kun, women; \underline{kh} lang-gun, bulls; gon-chas-kun, robes; $at\bar{a}$ -un, fathers; $m\bar{\imath}$ -un, men; $khy\bar{\imath}$ -un, dogs.

Another plural suffix is $ch\bar{o}k$; thus, $yot\text{-}chas\text{-}kun\text{-}ch\bar{o}k$, goods, all goods.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The nominative is used as the subject of intransitive verbs. The subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent. The suffix of that case is s; thus, attā-s, by the father.

The suffix of the dative is la; thus, $at\bar{a}$ -la, to a father; $at\bar{a}$ -un-la, to fathers. Instead of la we find a in shiti-a, direction-to, to. The suffix la is used in the same wide sense as in classical Tibetan; thus, brok-la, on the mountain pasture; lam-thagh-ring yul $ch\bar{i}$ -la, to a distant country. The dative is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, ngas $kh\bar{o}i$ $phr\bar{u}$ -la . . . t^eangs , I have beaten his son.

The suffix la is, moreover, sometimes also used to denote the agent; thus, $att\bar{a}$ -la $khur\bar{\iota} phr\bar{u} thong$, the father saw his son.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$, corresponding to classical Tibetan nas. It is commonly used to form adverbs. Thus, thagh-ring- $n\bar{a}$, from a distance; de- $kh\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, thereafter. A common postposition of the ablative in the case of rational beings is shiti-a- $n\bar{a}$, from the direction of. It is usually combined with the genitive. Thus, $at\bar{a}$ chig- $g\bar{\iota}$ shiti-a- $n\bar{a}$, from a father.

The genitive is formed by adding the suffix $\bar{\imath}$, which supersedes a final \bar{a} . Thus, $yul-\bar{\imath}$, of a country; $att-\bar{\imath}$, of a father $(att\bar{a})$. Note forms such as $chig-g\bar{\imath}$, of one, from chik, one, where the final g has not been changed to k.

There are some few traces left of the old terminative; thus, ok-tu, under; thur-u, down; dun-uk, before; ya-r, up.

The vocative is indicated by prefixing the interjection $l\bar{e}$; thus, $l\bar{e}$ atta, O father.

Adjectives.—Adjectives do not differ from nouns in form. They usually precede, but sometimes also follow, the noun they qualify; thus, mot- $p\bar{o}$ $namz\bar{e}$, much time; $nyamp\bar{o}$ -duk-khan mot- $p\bar{o}$, many servants. The particle of comparison is $ba\underline{tsek}$; thus, $kh\bar{o}i$ $ph\bar{o}n\bar{o}$ khur-ri string- $m\bar{o}$ $ba\underline{tsek}$ $rg\bar{o}bong$ $thonm\bar{o}$ -yot, his brother his sister-than more tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister. Adjectives are often qualified by adverbs such as $m\bar{a}$, very; mang- $m\bar{o}$, very much, and so forth.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify, and postpositions are accordingly added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik-la, man one-to.

Generic suffixes are used in two instances. Thus, sorup chik-sā, ring one-piece, a ring; ra-bak-chi chik-sā, goat-young-one one-piece, a kid.

'A half' is phet; thus, dabal nyis nang phet, two rupees and a half.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns which occur in the texts are as follows:—

I.			We.	Thou.	You.	He, she, it.	They.	
Nom.	•	ngā, ngā-ang	. ngayā, ngan-tang	khiang, respect- ful yang.	khyetang; khyen- tang, respectful yetang.	khō	khong, khōtang.	
Gen.	•	ngī, ngarri	. ngai	khyer-ri, yar-ri.	khyen-ti	khō-i, khur-ri, yer-ri.	khong-ngi.	

Ngayā, we, excludes, and ngan-tang includes the person addressed. Yang is used as an honorific form and perhaps also as a plural. It apparently corresponds to classical Tibetan nyid-rang, while khiang corresponds to khyed-rang, thyself, and so forth.

Other forms are regular; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -ang-la and $ng\bar{a}$ -la, to me; $kh\bar{o}$, him; $kh\bar{o}e$ - $n\bar{a}$, him from, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are di, $di\bar{u}$, $d\bar{o}$, this; $d\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}$, from this; $d\bar{e}$, that; $d\bar{e}$ -vi, $d\bar{e}$ -bi, of that; $d\bar{e}$ - b^e ang- $n\bar{a}$, from them. An isolated form is $y\bar{a}$, this, that. Compare Ladakhī \bar{a} , that.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, who? $ch\bar{\imath}$, what? \underline{tsam} , \underline{tsam} - \underline{tse} , how much? how many?

Indefinite pronouns are sūsē, anyone, lit. whosoever; chang, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. They precede the qualified noun in the genitive; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -ang-la ong-ma-yot- $p\bar{\imath}$ $p\bar{o}$, me-to coming-of share, the share that falleth to me; $ng\bar{a}$ -la yot- $p\bar{\imath}$ yot-chas-kun, me-to being-of goods, the goods that are mine.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is, broadly speaking, effected in the same way as in classical Tibetan. The materials available are not sufficient to allow us to judge about the use of the various bases of verbs. It is probable that the past base is commonly used in all tenses, just as is the case in Ladakhī. The imperative is, however, often formed from a separate base.

There is apparently an incipient tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of suffixes added to the verb.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases in, yot, and duk. It is freely used in the formation of the finite tenses of other verbs.

Present.—The base of the present tense is identical with the root of the verb. The mere present base does not, however, occur in the materials available in other verbs than the verb substantive yot, am, art, etc. The usual present tense of finite verbs is a compound form. It is effected by adding suffixes to the present base. The common suffixes are nuk, et, and at, all various forms of the copula. Thus, tang-nuk, I, or we, strike; shīt, i.e., shī-et, I die; zer-et, he says; ong-at, he comes.

A present definite is formed by adding yot to the participle ending in in; thus, $\underline{ts}h\bar{o}$ in-yot, he is grazing.

Past time.—The usual base of the past tense is formed by adding s to the present base. Thus, zer-s, said; ong-s, came; t'ang-s, struck. By adding the copula et or at to the past base a compound past is effected, which usually has the meaning of a perfect. Thus, song-s-et, went; ngas b'ya-s-et, I have done; thobs-et, is found; khsons-et, has become alive. A kind of perfect is also effected by adding yot to the conjunctive participle ending in $s\hat{e}$; thus, $duk-s\hat{e}$ yot, having sat down is, has sat down, is sitting.

The participle ending in pa, ba, is commonly used as a past tense of auxiliary verbs. Thus, yot-pa, was; in-pa, was; met-pa, was not.

The suffix pa is also added to the form ending in set or to the present; thus, $t^eang-s-et-pa$, was striking; song-s-et-pa, have walked; skang-at-pa, filled, was filling.

A past tense can also be formed by adding song or songs, went, to the infinitive. Thus, bakhston-b'ya-song, is married, lit. marriage to make went.

Future.—The termination of the future tense is uk. Thus, $t^{\epsilon}ang \cdot uk$, I shall strike; gik, I shall go; $zer \cdot uk$, I shall say.

Imperative.—Some verbs have a separate imperative base formed by changing the vowel a of the present base to o; thus, $t^e ong$, strike, $t^e ang - m\bar{o}$, to strike; $z\bar{o}$, eat, base $z\bar{a}$.

In other verbs the present base, with or without the addition shik, is used as an imperative. Thus, skon, put on; len, take; za-shik, eat; $b^cyas-shik$, make. Shik literally means 'once,' 'one time.' Compare the German idiom 'sieh mal.'

Verbal nouns.—The usual suffixes of verbal nouns are $p\bar{o}$, $b\bar{o}$, $m\bar{o}$, pa, ba, and la; thus, yot- $p\bar{o}$, to be; zer- $b\bar{o}$, to say; t^cang - $m\bar{o}$, to strike; $\underline{ts}h\bar{o}$ -la, to feed. The suffix chas in gon-chas, cloth, has already been mentioned. Compare classical gon-pa.

Participles.—The suffixes pa and ma form relative and adverbial participles; thus, $sh\bar{\imath}-s-pa$, dead; ong-ma-yot-pa, coming-being, which will come. Compare the instances quoted under the head of relative pronouns. The suffixes chas and khan have already been mentioned above.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix \bar{e} to the present or past base. Thus, $zer-r\bar{e}$, saying; $khur-r\bar{e}$, taking; $ong-s-\bar{e}$, having come; $khyong-s-\bar{e}$, having brought; $b^eya-s-\bar{e}$, doing.

Other participles and verbal nouns are formed by adding the ordinary case suffixes.

The ablative suffix $n\bar{a}$ is added to the conjunctive participle ending in $s\bar{e}$ and to the participle ending in $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $song-s-\bar{e}-n\bar{a}$, having gone.

The locative suffix in is added to the present base; thus, $\underline{ts}h\bar{o}$ -in, grazing; $lto\underline{kh}s$ -in, hungry.

The dative suffix la is used to form an infinitive of purpose; thus, $b^{\epsilon}y\bar{a}$ -la, in order to make.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the case of the agent in the subject. Thus, thop-pa song-s-et, to be found went, he is found; ngā-ang teang-ma song-s-et, me striking went, I am struck; ngā-ang teang-ma gik, me striking will-go, I shall be struck.

Causative.—There is one single instance of the classical causative formed by pre-fixing an s, viz., s-kon, make him put on, dress. Compare gon-chas, robe.

Negative verb.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -rgal-ba, did not pass; met, no; men, am not. The form met is usually added to the participle in pa or ma in order to form a compound negative. Thus, min-pa-met, min-ma met-pa, did not give. There are no instances in the texts of a negative imperative.

Interrogative particle.—The formation of interrogative sentences is the same as in the Ladakhī dialect.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The object may precede the subject when it is followed by the suffix la. The genitive precedes the governing word. Adjectives and pronouns usually precede the noun they qualify, while numerals follow it. Adverbs are put immediately before the verb, or at the beginning of the sentence.

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

BALTI DIALECT. (BALTISTAN.)

(R. T. Clarke, Esq., I.C.S., and Rev. A. H. Francke.)

Mī chik-la phrū nyis vot-pa. Dē-beáng-nā tsun-tsē-vō-s zers. children two were. Them-from younger-by father-to said, Man one-to min.' ٠lē atā, ngā-ang-la ong-ma-yot-pi рõ Atā-s khur-ri · 0 father, coming-being-of give.' Father-by hisme-even-to share vot-chas-kun khong-la Mot-pō namze-ik mā-rgalba. tsun-tsē phrū-vō-s rgos. Much them-to divided.time-a not-passed, littlechild-by possessions khur-ri yot-chas-kun khur-rē. lam thagh-ring chi-la bēs yul far country one-to journey hispossessions carrying, way yot-chas-kun chōk tshan-nu-na zhargading zadpa beyas. Yang khur-ri yot-pī allnight-in enjoying And hisbeing-of possessions made. yā anchan zanushkan chi beyas. Khur-ri vot-chas-kun chhams-pī zhuk-la, there mighty famine Hisfinishing-of after, one made. possessions Khō shagargo Khō vā vul-li phyuk-pō shiti-a song. song-s. HeHethat country-of rich-man before went. needy became. khō khur-ri phak-kun nyampo-yot-khan-la duk-s. Dē phvuk-pō-s tshō-a hisswineservant-like lived. That rich-man-by him feed-to khoskhating-ngi-khā tshas-si-khā yakh-s. Dē-khā-nā that-kyi-khā sō-sē, ltō-a husks-of-on field-of-on There-after living, belly sent. gladlyskang-at-pa, sū-si khō-la phag-na tshoghs beya-sē, chang yang filled, swine-with likeandany-one-by him-to done-having, anything min-ma-met-pa. zer-s, Dē-khā-nā 'ngī atā-la khō-la ong-se. shang come-having, giving-not-was. There-after my father-to him-to sensesaid,nyampō-duk-khan khong-is zó-sě drang-sē mot-po yot; servants filled-being many are; them-by eaten-having lus-et. Ngā-ang ltoghs-in shiit. Ngā-ang atī shiti-a song-sē. is-spared. I-even hungering die. I-even father-of before gone-having, zer-uk. "lē atā, yar-ri nang ldan-chuk-khan-ni shiti-a ngā-ang phyoks "O father, say-shall, thy direction andCreator-of before I-even song-s-et. nyes-pa-chan Yar-ri phrug-gi phrō-la yak-pō ngā-ang byurmō sinner became(went). Thy children-of company-to place-to I-even worthy

yok.", drē-sē Ngā-ang yar-ri nyampō-yot-khan-kun-nang yot-khan chi men. mixed-having place." servants-all-withone not-am. Me-even thy shiti-a Thagh-ring-nā Dē-i ongs. zhuk-tu khur-ri atī Distance-from This-of after his father-of before came. bgyug-gin atā-la khur-ri thong, atā-la gyot-lukh ongs; phrū father-to his child saw. father-to compassion came; running Phrū-si beyas. song-sē-nā, phrū brang-barla sdam-s; yang bā gone-having, childbreast-between collected; andkissmade. Child-by ' lē shiti ldan-chuk-khan-ni atā-la atā, nga-ang var-ri nang zer-s. Creator-of father-to father, I-even before said. the-of and shiti-a nyes-pa bevas-et; var-ri phrū in zer-bō, ngā-ang byurmō before child sindid: thy amto-say, 1-even worthy not-am. Dē-khā-nā ' mā atā-s nvampō-vot-khan-kun-la zer-s. l°aghs-mō That-after father-by servant-all-to said, 'very goodgonchas-shik khyong-sē-nā, khō-la skon; vang sor-up chik-sā khōi robe-one brought-having, him-to put; andring one-piece his khō-la phranzuk-la bor: hlam skon.' Yang atā-s zers, 'zā-shik. shoe him-to put. finger-on place; And father-by said, eat, thung-shik, that-khā bevas-shik: ngī shīs-pi bū khson-s-et; stor-khan-pō drink, merry make; deadmy son alive-became; the-lost-one thop-s-et.' Khong that-khã b°yā yakh-s. found-is.' They merry to-make began.

Khō-i tshar-mö phō-nō taps-si-khā yot-pa. Khō ong-sē, nang-a elderbrotherHisfield-of-on was. Hecome-having, house-to shiti-a thon-ma-nā, rtshes nang harib-bi skat khō-lā kō. reaching-after, **before** dance andclarinet-of sound him-to understood. Shiti-a duk-khan-kun-ni-nā chik-la, ong, zer-rē khyong-sē. tris, 'dīn 'come,' Beforebeing-all-of-from one-to, saying brought-having, ' this asked, chī rgā-mō in?' Shiti-a-duk-khan-bō-s khō-la zers. ' yar-ri is?' what joy Before-being-by him-to said, 'your lokh-sē phō-nō thon-pi gron beyas. atā-s chī returned-having brother arriving-of feast made, father-by what zer-ba-na, khō lokh-sē rdong-ngō-na thon-pi phari.' Khō-la he returned-having saying-if, safety-in arriving-of for. Him-to phuk-sē-nā, nang-ljongs må zhuk-s. Dī-u phari khōi atā phirol anger-having-come-after, inside notentered. This for hisfatheroutsidekhō-la jū-phul beyas. byung-sē, Khō-si tam-lan atā-la lzokh-s, 'ngā-ang appeared-having, him-to entreaty made. Him-by answer father-to returned, 'I-even dī-tshē mot-põ lõe yang-la lta-lukh Ngā-ang nam-sang yar-ri hukum beyas. many these years you-to servicemade. I-even never your order

BALTĪ DIALECT.

nga-ri rgā-khan-kun-nang drē-sē, rgā-mō byā-la, ngā-ang-la chaks-pa-met; friends-with mixing, joy making-for, me-even-to broken-not-have; mymin-pa-met. Dō-in-na-sē dō-sē khyer-ri bū-la chik-sā rabak chi gavest-not. Butnow your son-to kidone-piece onebū-si yot-pī yot-chas-kun rtsē-khan-kun-nyampō beya-s-et; dē gron son-by being-of property-all dancers-with madest; thatfeast bū-la 'lē bū, ngā-la yot-pî yot-chas-kun chham-chuks.' Atā-s zers, said, ' O me-to being-of finish-caused.' Father-by son-to son, property-all khyer-ri in, rgā-mö byā-yot-pō byur-mō in-pa; chā-zerba-na, khyer-ri shīs-pī to-be-made what-say-if, deadthine is,joyproperis; thy phō-nō khson-s-et; stor-khan-pō, thop-pa song-s-et.' yang brother again alive-became; the-lost-one, found became.'

PURIK.

The province of Purik formerly belonged to Ladakh, but was transferred to Baltistan after the Dogra war, 1834-42. According to the conceptions of the Ladakhis it extends from the Zoji pass to Bod-Khorba. The dialect called Purik is spoken from Mulbe to Dras.

It has not been described by any authority, and no estimates of the number of speakers are available. At the last Census of 1901, Purik was included under the head of Baltī.

Purik is closely connected with Baltī and Ladakhī, and it can best be described as the connecting link between the two.

Pronunciation.—Final a is long if it occurs in the base of a word, and short if it occurs in a termination; thus, $m\bar{a}$, mother; la, to. The ablative termination $n\bar{a}$ seems to have a long \bar{a} . This \bar{a} has been derived from an old as.

R as a prefix is pronounced as in Ladakhi, with a guttural sound. Also the other r corresponds to Ladakhi r.

Final gs and ks are liable to be pronounced gh or kh, respectively. A similar sound can be observed in Ladakhi. Thus the word Ladvags is often pronounced Ladakh, and this pronunciation gave rise to the spelling Ladakh. Tones do not play any rôle in the dialect, though they are probably used to a certain degree.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Prefixes are mainly pronounced in the same way as in Baltī and Ladakhī. R, l, and s prefixes are distinctly pronounced; g, b, and d prefixes are often pronounced as r or s; thus, rgyab, behind; ltova, belly; skad, language; rchespa, classical gches-pa, dear.

The prefix a is used in nouns of relationship as in Baltī and Ladakhī. Thus, a- $t\bar{a}$, father; a- $m\bar{a}$, mother; a- $ch\bar{e}$, elder sister; a- $n\bar{e}$, wife.

The suffix khan is used as in Baltī and Ladakhī. Thus, ltsang-khan, beggar; yong-khan, coming, etc.

Article.—There is no real definite article. The suffix $p\bar{o}$ or pa is used as a kind of article, as is also the case in Baltī and Ladakhī; thus, $nor-p\bar{o}$, property, substance; $phyug-p\bar{o}$, rich man; $serdup-p\bar{o}$, ring. In all these cases the $p\bar{o}$ corresponds to the emphatic article of Ladakhī. Compare the remarks under the head of verbal noun, below.

The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik-la, to a man; yul chig-a, to a country. It occasionally takes the form $ch\bar{\imath}$. Thus, $ngari\ yong$ -khan- $ch\bar{\imath}$, my coming, my share.

Nouns.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using separate words or by adding suffixes such as $ph\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{o}$, male; $m\bar{o}$, female. Thus, $khy\bar{\imath}$, dog; $khy\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, bitch: $b^{\imath}y\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{o}$, cock; $b^{\imath}y\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, hen.

Number.—The usual plural suffix is gun as in Balti and Ladakhi; thus, dugs-mi-gun, servants. It often occurs in the form un. Thus, $st\bar{a}$ -un, horses; dugs-mi-un, servants. $\underline{T}shang$ - $k\bar{a}$, all, is also used as a plural suffix.

Case. The various cases are formed in the same way as in Baltī and Ladakhī.

The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The nominative is used as the case of the subject with intransitive verbs. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ chik-la $b\bar{u}$ - $ts\bar{a}$ $ny\bar{\imath}s$ yot-pin, man one-to two sons were. The subject of a transitive verb is usually put in the case of the agent. This latter case is formed by adding is or, after vowels, s. Thus, atta-s gron $b^*y\bar{a}$ -s, the father made a feast; $kh\bar{o}$ -s zer-s, he said.

The suffix of the dative is la. Thus, $m\bar{i}$ chik-la, to a man. It is often also used to denote the object, as is also the case in Ladakhi; thus, $kh\bar{o}$ -la rdungs, beat him.

The dative suffix often takes the form a, as is also the case in Ladakhi. Thus, $b\bar{a}\underline{t}sh\bar{a}$ -va, to a king; nang-a, inside.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $at\bar{a} \ chik-n\bar{a}$, from a father. $N\bar{e}$, which also occurs, seems to be a loan from Ladakhī; thus, $s\bar{u}$ -i- $kh\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{e}$, from above whom, from whom?

The suffix of the genitive is i; thus, $at-\bar{i}$, i.e. $at\bar{a}-i$, of a father.

The suffix of the locative is na and perhaps sometimes nang; thus, rzhung-na, inside. The dative is often used instead; thus, khang-ma-a, in the house.

There are only a few traces of the terminative. Thus, $d\bar{e}$ -r, there. In most cases the dative is used instead, as is also the case in Ladakhī.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dun-la, shi-ti-a, before; rgyab-na, behind; $kh\bar{a}$, on; $kh\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, from; par-la, from; $ph\bar{\iota}-a$, for sake; $nyam-p\bar{o}$, with.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are formed as in Ladakhī and Baltī. The suffixes *khan* and *chan* form possessive adjectives. Thus, $l\underline{t}\underline{s}ang$ -khan, beggar; rin-chan, value-possessing, dear. The suffixes pa, ba, $p\bar{o}$, and $m\bar{o}$ are used as in Ladakhī and other connected forms of speech. Thus, bar-pa, middle; rgyal-ba, good; $chh\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{o}$, great; l- $a\underline{gh}$ - $m\bar{o}$, good.

The adjective precedes the qualified noun in the nominative; thus, \underline{tsun} - $\underline{ts\bar{e}}$ $b\bar{u}$ - $\underline{ts\bar{a}}$, the little son; kar- $p\bar{o}$ $st\bar{a}$, the white horse. Mang- $m\bar{o}$, much, many, sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the noun it qualifies. Thus, mang- $m\bar{o}$ $\underline{kh}\bar{a}$, much anger; zhak mang- $m\bar{o}$, many days.

Mā, much, and man-na, if it is not, are often prefixed in order to form an absolute comparative and superlative. Thus, mā nor-ō, better; man-na nor-ō, better, best.

The particle of comparison is basang, i.e. perhaps bas-yang, from also; compare Ladakhī sang. Thus, khuri phō-nō khuri ā-chē basang thon-mō duk, his younger brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. There are no traces of generic particles. Note *phet-ang sum*, two and a half, as in Ladakhī.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

	$kh\bar{o}$, $kh\bar{o}$ -rang, he.
rang, ya-rang	
(=nyidrang), thou.	
khye-ri-s, khye-rang-	
	khur-is, by him.
~ ,	khō-la, khō-rang-la,
	to him.
	khō-i, khō-rang-i,
ya-ri, thy.	
khye-chā, khyen-tang,	$kh\bar{o}$ -tang, $khong$, they.
you.	•
khye-cha-s, khyen-	khon-tang-is, khong-
	khon-tang-i, khon-t-i,
i, khyen-ti, your.	
	thee. khyod-la, khyed-la, khye-rang-la, ya- rang-la, to thee. khye-ri, khye-rang-i, ya-ri, thy. khye-chā, khyen-tang, you. chye-cha-s, khyen- tang-is, khyen-ti-s, by you. khye-che, khyen-tang- khye-che, khyen-tang-

Ngā and ngā-rang, I, are apparently used without any difference. The final rang in ngā-rang, khye-rang, khō-rang, means 'self.' It is used alone in ngari atē bū-tsa-s rang-iāchē-nang bag-ston b'ya-s, my uncle's son-by his own sister-with wedding made.

Demonstrative pronouns are $d\bar{\imath}$, $d\bar{o}$, $d\bar{\imath}$, $d\bar{\imath}$ -u, this; \bar{e} , $d\bar{e}$, that. A plural form is apparently $d\bar{e}$ -rayang, they.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, who ? $g\bar{a}$, which ? $ch\bar{\imath}$, what ? $ch\bar{\imath}$ -la, why ? $\underline{tsamts\bar{e}}$, how many ?

Indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, $s\bar{u}$ -ang, anyone; chang, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used instead, in connexion with participles. Thus, $yul-la\ ch\bar{\iota}\ yot-pa$, country-in what being, all that is in the country; $g\bar{a}\ b\bar{u}-\underline{ts}h\bar{a}\ rgyal-ba\ song-na$, which son good going-if, the son who is going to turn out well; $gron\ s\bar{u}-i\ l^a\underline{gh}-m\bar{o}\ chh\bar{a}-na$, feast whose good going, he whose feast is becoming good; $nga-ri\ ch\bar{\imath}\ yot-khan-p\bar{o}$, my what being, all that is mine. The suffix na added in some of these examples corresponds to the na which is used in relative clauses in Ladakh $\bar{\imath}$.

In nga-ri yong-khan-chī, mine is coming what, what is to be my share, chī is probably the indefinite article.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is formed from the bases *in*, *yot*, and *duk*. All those bases are also used as auxiliary verbs.

The base alone is sometimes used as a **present**; thus, in, am, art, is, and so forth; yot, is; son, he is alive. Usually, however, et or duk is added; thus, chhēt, i.e. chhā-et, I go; rdung-duk, I strike.

A compound present is formed by adding duk to the participle in in; thus, dug-gin-duk, he lives; chhe-n-duk (= $chh\bar{a}$ -in-duk), he goes.

The past base is formed by adding s; thus, $b^{e}ya$ -s, did; rdung-s, struck. The vowel a of the base is changed to o in zo-s, ate, base za.

A compound past tense is formed by adding the verb substantive to the past base. Thus, yong-s-et, has come.

The present is sometimes also used to denote the past especially with intransitive verbs, as is also the case in Ladakhi; thus, thop, he is found.

A compound past is also formed by means of the suffix pa. It is by origin a participle, and the verb substantive can therefore be added. Thus, yot-pa, was; yot-p-in, was; zer-et-pa, he said; $z\bar{e}-et-pa$, he ate; rgos-uk-pa, it was necessary; $sh\bar{i}-s-pa$, he had died; rdung-s-et-pa, I had struck; rdung-duk-s-pa, I was striking.

The suffix ma is used instead of pa in tang-ma met-pa, did not give.

Forms such as shī-sē yot-pa, having died was, he had died, of course also occur.

The **future** is formed by adding uk, or, after nasals, also nuk. Thus, zer-uk, I shall say; tang-nuk, I shall give.

The **imperative** is often the mere present or past base. Thus, duk, be; rdung-s, strike. As in Ladakhī an o is substituted for the a of the base; thus, $z\tilde{o}$, eat; tong, give; longs, get up.

The suffixes shik and ang are sometimes added; thus, sd'yak-shik, prepare.

Verbal nouns.—The tense bases, with or without the suffixes pa, $ch\bar{a}$ and chas, are used as verbal nouns. Thus, yot-pa, to be; zer-ba, to say; rdung-chas, to strike; compare also $ltanm\bar{o}$, a spectacle.

Participles.—The verbal nouns are also used as participles. Thus, rches-pa, beloved; tang-ma met-pa, giving was not, he did not give.

A suffix khan is used to form present and past participles. Thus, yong-khan, coming; ltsang-khan, begging, beggar; yongs-khan-pō, come-having-the, he who came.

Adverbial and conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes $s\bar{e}$ and $t\bar{e}$; thus, $sh\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{e}$, dying; that- $t\bar{e}$, gladly. \bar{E} is sometimes used in the same way. Thus, zer- $r\bar{e}$, saying. Such forms are occasionally also used as verbal nouns. Thus, zer- $r\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, saying from, having said; logh-s- \bar{e} - $n\bar{a}$, returned-having-from, having returned. On the other hand, the verbal noun can also be used as a conjunctive participle. Thus, drang-s-pa, having filled; $m\bar{a}$ zer-ba, not saying.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent. Thus, stor-s-et-pa, he was lost.

Causatives are formed by means of the prefix s. Thus, s-kon, put on. As in Ladakhī it is, however, more common to add the auxiliary chhuk-chas; thus, khō yong-chhuk, make him come.

The **negative particle** is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ song, he did not go; $m\bar{a}$ zer-s, he did not say. As in Ladakhi, $m\bar{i}$ is probably used instead in the present and future tenses. Compound negative tenses are formed by adding met and man; thus, tang-ma met-pa, giving was-not, did not give.

The interrogative particle is \bar{a} as in Ladakhī; thus, $kh\bar{o}$ yong-ed-d \bar{a} , does he come?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, indirect object, direct object, verb. In $d\bar{\imath}$ -u mul- $p\bar{o}$ $kh\bar{o}$ -la tong, this rupee him-to give, the direct object is put before the indirect one for the purpose of emphasizing it.

For further details the specimens which follow should be consulted. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second a popular tale. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 140 and ff. I owe the specimens to the kindness of the Rev. A. H. Francke.

[No. 2.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

PURIK DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. A. H. Francke, 1906.)

(Purik.)

chig-la bū-<u>ts</u>hā nyis yot-pin. Dē-rayang-nā <u>tsunts</u>ē-s atā-la zer-s, Man one-to Them-from the-little-by father-to said, sons twowere. 'lē atā, nga-ri yong-khan-chī nga-rang-la tong.' Dē-kha-na khō-s nor O father, my coming me-to give.' Thereafter him-by riches sgō-sē tang-s. Yang zhak $mang-m\bar{o}$ $m\bar{a}$ song-së, dē rgyab-na divided-having gave. And daysmany notgoing, thatafter tsuntsēs sak mal-chik beyas-sē yang thagh-ring yul chig-a drul-s: little-by place-one done-having alland far country one-to went; dē-khā yang hleb-sē khō-s khuri nor-gun zō-stē there arrived-having and him-by hisriches-all eaten-having Sak skyal-s. tsar-ba-na dē yul-nang mang-mo zan-skon Allwasted. finishing-from that country-in muchfood-dearth went. ltsang-khan-la gyur-song. Khō-rang Di-u yul-li phyug-pō chig-gi bīs-ba He beggar-to turned. This country-of rich-man one-of servant Khō-s khu-ri dug-s. zhing-la $\underline{\text{ts}}$ hō-a-la tang-s. Khō-s phag-gis .Him-by hislived. field-to pasture-for sent.Him-by swine-by that-tē zē-et-pa, zas-pō amao sus-ang tang-ma met-pa. Dē-khā-nā strang gladlyeaten ate, but anyone-by giving not-was. The reaftersense logh-sē-nā zer-s, 'nga-ri att-ī shitia tsam-tsig las-mī yot returned-having said, 'my father-of before how-many work-menaredrangs-pā ltō-a zos-sē hlag-ma sak-sē khur-ed. Nga-rang belly filling eaten-having remainder gathered-having carry-off. ltoghs-pa-la shī-et. Ngā-rang lang-sē att-ī dē-r chhōk, yang hunger-with I arisen-having father-of there-to will-go, and" lē khō-la zer-uk, attā, nam-yang ya-ri dun-la nyes-pa beya-s. " O will-say, father, him-to heaven-and you-of before sindid, ngā đà. ya-ri bū-<u>ts</u>hā zer-ba bvor-va Ngā-rang ya-ri las-mī met. chik I your son to-say now worthy not-am. Meyour work-man one

tshoghse zhog."' Dē-kha-nā langs-sē khu-ri att-ī shitia song. place." Thereafter likearisen-having hisfather-of before went. 'ē Yang darang thagh-ring-la yot-pa, khō-rang thong-sē, sū in-tshug?' seen-having, 'that who And *yet* far being, him is? langs-sē rgyuk-s skyen-jugs tang-s yang sam, yang mikmang-mō thought, andarisen-having ranembracegave and kissmany nga-res nam-yang tang-s. Bū-tshā-s khō-la zer-s, ' lē attā, ya-ri dun-la gave. Son-by him-to said, 'O father, me-by heaven-and your-of before nyes-pā beya-s. Dā ngā ya-ri bū-tshā zer-ba byor-va Attā-s sindid. Now I your son to-say worthy not-am. Father-by khu-ri dugs-mī-gun-la ' mā zer-s, norbō gonchas phyung-sē khō-la his house-man-all-to said, 'very richclothtaken-out-having him-to s-kon, yang khu-ri lag-pa-a serdubs-pō tog, yang rkang-ma-la kabsha make-wear, and hishand ringfasten, andfeet-to shoess-kon. Yang zōsē ltanmõ bok; nga-ri dī-u bū-tshā shī-sē put-on. Andeating merriment make-will; thismysondied-having thop.' son; stor-s-et-pa, yang Dē-kha-nā khong yot-pa, rgā-mō yang lives; lost-was, and is-found.' was, and Therefrom they merry dug-s. were.

Dē wakhs-la khu-ri chhō-pō bū-tshā sa-khyat-la yot-pin. Yang khō That time-in hishe great son field-in was. And khang-ma-nang nyē-mõ hleb-sē hlū nang rtses tshor. Khō-s house-with near reached-having and merry-making heard. song Him-by 'yong,' dugs-mi chik-la, zer-rē ʻdī-u chī-in?' tri-s, Khō-s khō-la house-man 'come,' 'this one-to, saying asked, what-is?' Him-byhim-to zer-s, 'khye-ri phō-nō yong-s-et, yang khye-ri chho-pō attā-s gron 'your brother-younger said, come-is, and your father-by bigfeast chī-phī-a beva-s, zer-na khō rdē-mō thun-s.' khō-la sen-mo-nang \mathbf{Y} ang what-for gave, ask-if henice health-in met. And him-to mang-mö khā yong-s, dū-i-phī-a khuri attā phīstā-a yong-s khō-la sgrol-sē, anger came, that-for his father outside came him-to flattering, zer-s. Yang khō-s attā-la jawāb zer-s, 'lō mang-pō dugs-mī 'nang-la yong,' 'inside come,' said. And him-by father-to answer said, 'years many servant tshoghs ya-ri las b'ya-s. Ngā-ang ya-ri tam-pō-la nam-sang men mā-zer-na-yang, your work did. I-also your order-to ever no not-said-although, nga-s zhak chig nga-ri yadō-phrō-pa-nang nyam-pö ngom-uk-pä phī-ā me-by dayonemytogether helpmates-with merry-making-of ya-ris ngā-la rī-gū chik-chik mā tangs. Ya-ri dīu bū-tshâ nleb na-ang you-by me-for kidone-one notgave. Thythis son arriving-when-also

Attā-s gron beya-s; lōli-mō nyam-pō dug-sē khō-s khu-ri nor zo-s.' feast gavest; him-by with sat-having hisriches harlots ate.' Father-by khō-la zer-s, 'lē bū-tshā, khye-rang ngā-rang-na nyam-pō zhak-dang duk-duk; dailyhim-to said,° 0 son, thoumewithart; yot. yang nga-ri yot-khan-pō khye-rang-i chiAmão ltan-mō nang andwhat substance thine But merriment myis.and that-chuk-pa rgos-uk-pa. \mathbf{Chi} zer-ba-na, Khye-ri phō-nō dī-u pleasure-causing proper-was. Whatsay-if, Thy younger-brother thisshi-s-pa, yang son; stors-et-pa, yang thop. died-had, again was-alive; again was-found.' lost-was,

[No. 3.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

PURIK DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A STORY OF A KING.

(Rev. A. H. Francke, 1906.) (Purik.) Bāt-shā yot-tshug. Bāt-shā·va Ьū sum yot-tshug. Yot-pa-chig-na King was. King-to sons three were. Being-of chhō-pō bū rin-chan nang rches-pa yot-tshug. Bāt-shā zer-et-pa, 'lē eldestdearand beloved was. King said, 0 khar khye-rang-la tang-nuk.' rzhung-na sak Zer-rē-na <u>ts</u>hang-ka-a khu-ri palace midst-in allthee-to give-will. Said-having all-to himself-of shitia Bāt-shā-s zer-s, yong zer-rē khyong-s. 'lē būtshā-gun, askyē-la before comesaying brought. King-by said, 0 son-all, to-morrow khyenti-s gron sdeyakh-shik. Gā bū<u>ts</u>hā rgyal-ba song-na khar vul you-by feast prepare. Which turns-out-if palace country goodrgyal-chhas do-la tang-nuk.' Bū-tshā tshang-ka khun-ti dug-sā dug-sā song. kingdom him-to give-will.' Sons alltheirhouse-to house-to went. yang Bar-pa chhō-po nang-a song-sē gron sdeyakh-s. Tsuntsē Middling and eldestinside gone-having feastprepared. Littlebū-tshā khu-ri nang-a-ang kokol song-sé song-sē nyal-s. Khō-i inside-to-also gone-having sorry gone-having slept. Hischōchō-s tri-s, 'khye-rang chi-la ko-kol song? Khye-rang sū-a chang lady-by asked, 'thou what-for sorry gone? Thou anyone-to anything mā-zer-ba nyal-s.' Rgyal-pō-i tsuntsē bū-tshā-s zer-s, 'lē chōchō, ngā-la not-said-having liest-down. King's youngest son-by said, · 0 $wife_{\bullet}$ me-to di-ring rgyal-pō-s mol-s, 'khyen-tang ā-chō-nō tshang-ka-s to-day king-by said, 'you elder-brother-younger-brother askyē-la ngā nang ngī drag-pa-zhan-ma chhēmī-tsuntsē-la mī-yul-la to-morrow me andnoblemen-other my old-young-to man-country-in what yot-pi zā-snā sak sdeyakh-sē gron tong. Gron sū-i leagh-mō being food-different all prepared-having feast give. Feast whose goodchhā-na dō-a ngī nor-zan khar rgyal-chhas thob-duk.' goes-if him-to my riches-food palace kingdom will-be-got. VOL. III, PART I. Н

50 TIBETAN.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

There was once a king, who had three sons. The eldest son was dear and beloved by him, and he said to him, 'O son, I will give you all that is in my palace.' He then summoned all his sons and said, 'O sons, prepare all of you a feast for to-morrow. I will give the palace, the country, and the kingdom to him who turns out best.'

The sons returned to their houses, and the two eldest ones began to prepare the feast. The youngest son also went home, but went to bed full of sorrow. His wife asked him, 'why are you sorry? You have gone to bed without speaking to anybody.' The king's youngest son said, 'O wife, to-day the king said to us, "you should all, the eldest as the youngest, to-morrow give a feast to me, and my officials and dependants, young and old, having prepared all the food of the country. My property, palace, and kingdom shall be his whose feast is best."'

LADAKHĪ.

The province of Ladakh, which is now included in the Ladakh Wazarat of Kashmir, has often been called Great Tibet, as opposed to Little Tibet or Baltistan. This name was known to the chronicler Śrīvara, and also to the Chinese annalists, who call Ladakh 'Great Poliu.' It is the Bod Buṭun of the modern Kaśmīrīs. The Tibetans call the province La-dwags and Mar-yul. Originally it belonged to Tibet, but in the tenth century it became an independent kingdom. From the end of the 17th century Ladakh was under commercial contract with Kashmir. In 1834 it was invaded by the troops of Gulāb Singh, ruler of Kashmir, and was soon after added to the Kashmir State.

The prevailing population of Ladakh are Buddhists of Tibetan race. According to Dr. Stein, the Zoji La pass, on the high road from Srinagar to Dras and Ladakh, is the ethnographic watershed between Kashmir and the territory of the Bhauttas, *i.e.*, the Tibeto-Burman population of Baltistan and Ladakh.

The language of Ladakh is usually known under the name of Ladakhi. At the last Census of 1901 it has been returned under the head of Budhi. It is also understood by most Baltis and Purik people.

The total population of Ladakh at the Census of 1891 was 28,274. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 31,620. No local estimates of the number of speakers of Ladakhī, the principal language of the district, have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901, the number of speakers was as follows:—

A.	Spoken at home-	_							•
	Ladakh (Budhi	i)		•	•				29,716
В.	Spoken abroad—	•							,
	Assam .				•			7	
	Punjab .			•			•	62	
	Punjab States		•		•		•	21	
									90
							TOTAL	•	$29,\!806$
$I \cap R I \cap$	TTES								

AUTHORITIES-

Ladakhī has been incidentally dealt with in several works on Tibetan in general. They will be found mentioned in the introduction to Tibetan. The list which follows registers the works dealing with Ladakhī alone which I have come across:—

RAMSAY, H.,—Western Tibet: a practical Dictionary of the Language and Customs of the Districts included in the Ladāk Wazarat. Lahore, 1890.

Marx, K.,—Three Documents relating to the History of Ladakh. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lx, Part i, 1891, pp. 97 and ff.; Vol. lxiii, Part i, 1894, pp. 94 and ff.; Vol. lxxi, Part i, 1902, pp. 21 and ff.

Sandberg, Rev. Graham,—Hand-book of Colloquial Tibetan. A practical guide to the larguage of Central Tibet. Calcutta, 1894. Part iii contains vocabularies, Ladaki, etc.

Francke, A. H.,—Die Respektssprache im Ladaker tibetischen Dialekt. Zeitschrift der deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lii, 1898, pp. 275 and ff.

Ladakhi Songs, edited in co-operation with Rev. S. Ribbach and Dr. E. Shawe. Leh, 1899-1902.

A Collection of Ladakhi Proverbs. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol lxix, Part i, 1900, pp. 135 and ff.

Second Collection of Ladakhi Proverbs. Leh, 1903.

Sketch of Ladakhi Grammar. In co-operation with other Moravian missionaries.

Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lxx, Part i, 1900, Extra No. 2. Calcutta, 1901.

Ladakhi Songs. Indian Antiquary, Vol. xxxi, 1902, pp. 87 and ff., 304 and ff.

,, Kleine Beiträge zur Phonetik und Grammatik des Tibetischen. Zeitschrift der Deutschen morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lvii, 1903, pp. 285 and n.

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A Language Map of West Tibet with notes. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal,

Vol. lxxiii, 1904, pp. 362 and ff.

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The Lamas of Ladakh are able to read the literature written in classical Tibetan.

Classical Tibetan is also, with some modifications, used in writing by the educated classes. The

Rev. A. H. Francke has translated the Gospel of St. Mark into the Ladakhi dialect, and he has also published a series of popular texts in the dialect. The orthography is, in such works, not in exact agreement with the spoken language, but has been adapted to the usage of classical Tibetan. The same is the case with the specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a popular tale, and, further, a list of Standard Words and Phrases. They have all been prepared by the Rev. S. Ribbach of Leh, and they are printed as I have received them. The remarks on Ladakhi which follow are based on Mr. Francke's Ladakhi grammar and only occasionally draw from the materials prepared by Mr. Ribbach.

The dialect of Ladakh is not the same all over the district. Our information about the local variations is, however, rather scanty. The dialect of Khalatse and of Lower Ladakh generally has preserved some old features which have been lost in the Leh dialect. Thus the genitive is distinguished from the case of the agent, and several words have preserved more ancient forms. Compare sbyar-chas, Leh zhar-ches, to stick to; thoras, Leh thore, to-morrow.

Mr. Francke distinguishes three sub-dialects of Ladakhi, viz.

- 1. The Sham dialect spoken from about Hanu in the west to a line midway between Saspola and Basgo in the east;
- 2. The Leh dialect, to the east of Sham, and stretching eastwards almost so far as Sheh;
- 3. The Rong dialect to the east of the Leh dialect.

The Tibetan spoken in Zangskhar agrees with Rong; only the north-western districts show traces of the Sham dialect. In Rubshu, on the other hand, a form of Central Tibetan is spoken.

The difference between these minor dialects is principally one of pronunciation. Compare the table which follows:—

Written form.						Sham.	Leh.	Rong.
Sgam, box	c	•	•	•	•	Sgam.	Gham.	Gham.
Sbaste, secretly		•	•	•	•	Sbaste.	Vaste.	Vaste.
Skampo, dry					•	Skampo.	Skampo.	Hampo.
Chospin, made		•		•	•	Chospin.	Chospin.	Chofin.
Bya, bird		•	•	•	•	Bya.	Ja.	Ja.
$Phyogs, { m side}$	•	•		•		Phyogs.	Chhogs.	$Chhogs_{ullet}$
Brag, rock		•	•	•	•	Brag.	Drag.	D_{rag} .
Phrugu, child	•	•	•	•	•	Phrugu.	Thrugu.	$Thrugu_{ullet}$
Grangmo, cold		•	•	•		Drangmo.	Drangmo.	Drangmo.
Khrims, right	•	•	,			Thrims.	Thrims.	Thrims.

The dialect described in Mr. Francke's grammar and in the ensuing remarks is that of Leh. I shall only in one or two places make some remarks on the state of affairs in other dialects of Ladakh.

Pronunciation.—The vowels are the same as in classical Tibetan. They are long when final, and short in all other cases. The final a of case-suffixes and the article is likewise short; thus, la, to; na, in; pa, article.

Soft consonants are hardened at the end of words; thus, mik, eye. They are, however, preserved before case-suffixes; thus, mig-gi, of the eye. In other positions they are generally pronounced as in English. Occasionally they are, however, hardened in imitation of the Lhasa dialect.

The aspirated hard consonants are pronounced as the corresponding unaspirated letters in English. The corresponding unaspirated letters are pronounced as in Tibet without any admixture of an aspiration. They preserve the hard sound when they are preceded by a prefixed or superadded letter in classical Tibetan, whether this preceding letter is pronounced or not, and when they are followed by a y. Thus, tang-ches, classical Tibetan gtong-ba, to give; ka, classical bka, word; sta, classical rta, horse; kyir, round; kyong-po, hard. In words such as nga-tang, we, the initial t is preserved by the preceding syllable, or t belongs to the base of the pronoun.

In other cases an initial hard consonant is apt to be softened. Thus, kab-sha, shoe, becomes gabsha; kram, cabbage, becomes dram; pagbu, brick, becomes bagbu, and so forth.

This latter rule is not observed in borrowed words or in the case of the consonants ch and \underline{ts} .

The consonant ng is pronounced as the ng in English 'song.' Final ng is dropped in the Rong dialect of the upper-most Indus valley.

R is pronounced as in Hindostānī. When preceding another consonant its pronunciation is somewhat modified so that it resembles the guttural French or German r. R and a following k or g (if not followed by g) assumes the sound of g in German 'loch.'

When r follows another consonant it is very weakly sounded, somewhat like the English r. It does not coalesce with the preceding consonant as in Tibet. Thus, drug, six; kabra, a herb. The more we advance towards the west, the more distinctly is the r pronounced. When we proceed eastwards, it gradually becomes more apt to coalesce with the preceding consonant and form a cerebral.

The consonant b between two vowels or preceded by ng, r, l, and b is pronounced like English v.

Compound letters are the same as in classical Tibetan. Several prefixed letters are, however, silent. Thus, ka, classical Tibetan bka, word. The pronunciation of others is modified in various ways.

The prefixes r and s are often interchanged, and both are often substituted for b, d, and g; thus, rtags and stags, present; sgam and rgam, box; bde-mo becomes rde-mo, nice; rgos, classical dgos, necessary; stam, classical gtam, speech, and so forth. Sh is sometimes substituted for r and s; thus, shkang-ling instead of rkang-ling, flute.

Prefixes before l become h; thus, hla, classical gla, wages; hleb-ches, classical sleb-pa, to arrive, and so forth,

In Rong and Leh br and gr become dr; pr and kr become tr; phr and khr become thr. B, p, and ph coalesce with a following y to a palatal. These rules are not observed in Lower Ladakh, so far as the labials are concerned, and the labials are retained before y in Leh if e or i follows, y being, in that case, dropped.

S or r and a following ch become sh; thus, nyis-chu becomes nyi-shu, twenty. Similarly r and s coalesce with a following j to zh, with a following ts to s, and with a following ts to ts.

A mute consonant is often dropped before r, and a preceding s then often becomes sh; thus, ra, classical dgra, enemy; shra, classical skra, hair.

A final l is often dropped; thus, slel becomes le, name of the capital of Ladakh; rgya-po instead of rgyal-po, king, etc.

An n is often added after final vowels. Thus, nye-mo and nyen, near; me-tok and men-tok, flower.

Aspirated hard letters are often softened within a word or between vowels; thus, a-je instead of a-chhe, elder sister; a-gu instead of a-khu, husband.

Nasals are often interchanged; thus, dngul and mul, silver; khronpa and khrompa, well; rmilam and nyi-lam dream, and so on. The two latter forms are both derived from rmyi-lam, and the remaining doublets would probably be easily explained if we knew more about pre-classical Tibetan.

In the Rong dialect of the upper Indus valley a prefixed r and s coalesce with a following p and k to f and h, respectively; thus, yangspa becomes yafa, fun; mgyogspa gyoyfa, quick; skad becomes had, voice; rkang-dung becomes hangdung, trumpet, and so forth. Similarly rg and sg become kh, and sh and rh become rh in Rong and Leh. In the Zangskar dialect a prefixed rh or sh coalesces with a following h or h and h respectively; thus, h h h h h, classical h stong, thousand. Compare the table above.

Tones.—Like Baltī and Purik, Ladakhī is generally speaking devoid of tones. A few tones can, however, occasionally be observed. Thus, zhag, day, is pronounced in a low, sha, meat, in a high tone.

Articles.—There are no definite articles. The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite article. The form chik is used after words ending in g, d, and b; it becomes shik after s and zhik in all other cases. Thus, zhay-chik, a day; las-shik, a work; phe-zhig, some flour. In Khalatse the article is pronounced chik after g, d, b, and n, and zhik after vowels.

The suffix po or bo can be added to most nouns. It apparently only emphasises the meaning. Thus, mik-po, the eye; i she-ma-bo, this lady.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished as in other connected dialects by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, mi, man; bo-mo, woman: khyi, dog; khyi-mo, bitch, and so forth.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffixes as kun, tshang-ma, tshang-ka, sak, all; mang-po, many; khachik, several, some, and so forth.

Case.—The mere base, without any suffix is used as a nominative and an accusative.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding s, or, after consonants, is; thus, mang-po-s, by many. Instead of s we sometimes find si and sis; thus, meme-si zer-s, grandfather said.

The case of the agent, however, is only formed in the way just described in Khalatse and Lower Ladakh. In the dialects spoken in Leh and Upper Ladakh, on the other hand, the case of the agent does not differ from the genitive and is formed by simply adding i; thus, kho-i zer-s, he said. Such a form occurs in one place in the specimens prepared by Mr. Ribbach.

In Lower Ladakh the dative is occasionally used instead of the case of the agent; thus, nga-la tshor-song, I heard. Compare Baltī.

The suffix of the dative is la, or, in ordinary conversation, usually a, before which a final consonant is doubled. The dative is used to denote various relations of time and place. Thus, Le-la chha-rug, he goes to Leh; $ng\ddot{a}$ lag-la, in my hand, and so forth. It is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, khyi-s mi-la tham-s, the dog bit the man.

The suffix of the genitive is i, as has already been remarked; thus, $rgyal \cdot po - i \ khar$, the king's castle. The suffix i coalesces with a preceding a to the sound \ddot{a} ; thus, $am\ddot{a}$ phi - la, for the mother's sake. After vowels, however, the genitive suffix is sometimes si instead of i; thus, Ishe - si khang - pa, Ishe's house. A final consonant is doubled before the suffix i; thus, miggi, of an eye.

The suffix of the ablative is nas, which in Leh is pronounced $n\ddot{a}$. Thus, $i \cdot n\ddot{a}$, from this; $zhing \cdot n\ddot{a}$, from the field; $khang \cdot pa \cdot n\ddot{a}$, from the house. The ablative is also used to denote the material of which a thing is made, and in Leh it often has the meaning of a locative; thus, $sa \cdot n\ddot{a}$, of earth; $a \cdot n\ddot{a}$, there, and thence.

The locative and the terminative are usually replaced by the dative. The old locative suffix na occurs in postpositions such as nang-na, within, in. Old terminatives are a-ru, de-ru, there, thither; i-ru, here; zhan-ma-ru, to the other; $\underline{tshang-ma-ru}$, to all; id-du (bor-ches), (to keep) in mind.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, which are usually added to the genitive. Such are dun-nä, from the presence; chhoks-nä, from the direction; nang-nä, out of; nang-na, within; nang-la, into; kha-nä, through, by; kha, on, upon; tsa, near; dun-la, before; dang, with; phila, for. In Lower Ladakh many of these postpositions are added to the base. Some postpositions govern the ablative; thus, lo mang-po-nä pharla, from many years.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the word they qualify; thus, sta rgyalla, a good horse. When the adjective precedes the qualified noun, it is put in the genitive; thus, dambä chhos, the holy religion; bod-di thrims-la, according to Tibetan custom; duk-chan-ni rul, the poisonous snake.

This is especially the case in some certain phrases, and with adjectives denoting nationality or such as are formed by means of the possessive suffix chhan.

Adjectives do not usually change for gender. Sometimes, however, the male suffixes pa, po, and the female suffixes ma, mo, are added. Thus, rgyal-po rgad-po, the old king; rgyal-mo rgad-mo, the old queen.

Comparison is effected by adding sang to the compared noun, which is then often put in the genitive; thus, ngä khang-pa i khang-pä sang rgyalla yot, my house this house than good is.

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Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Where more than one form is given, the last one represents the pronunciation in Leh.

Numerals follow the noun they qualify.

'Half' is phet; thus, phed-ang druk, five and a half.

I have not found any instances of the use of generic particles in the materials available.

Pronouns.—The usual forms of the personal pronouns are as follows:—

nga, nga-rang, I.	khyot, khyo-rang, nye-rang,	kho, kho-rang, khong, he,
	thou.	she, it.
ngä, nga-rang-ngi, my.	khyod-di, khyo-rang-ngi,	khoi, kho-rang-ngi,
	nye-rang-nyi, thy.	khong-ngi, his, etc.
nga-zha, we, i.e. I and they,	khyo-zha, nye-zha-rang, you.	kho-gun, khong(-kun),
ngatang, we, i.e. I and		they.
you.	l l	•
nga-zhä, ngat-i, our.	khyo-zhä, nye-zha-rang-ngi, your.	kho-gun-ni, their.

'Self' is rang, genitive rang-ngi, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are i, this; a, that, which precede, and di, this; de, that, which generally follow the word they qualify. Instead of de, we often find dena, or, in the Rong dialect, deka. When used alone, the demonstrative pronouns commonly take the suffix bo; thus, i-bo, this; dena-bo, the same.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? ga, which? chi, what?

There are no relative pronouns. The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used instead; thus, ga-bo-la thad-na de nen-shik, take what you like; nga ga-ru thad-duk de-ru chhen, I shall go where I please. If the relative sentence qualifies, and is not itself the representative of, the subject, object, or an adverbial adjunct of the principal sentence, the interrogative pronouns cannot be used. Relativity is in such cases expressed by means of relative participles, i.e., by the genitive case of the present or past participle followed by the qualified word. Thus, dik-pa cho-khan-ni mi-la rdung-duk, wrong doing-of man beat, I beat the man who does wrong.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in the same way as in classical Tibetan. Only a few verbs can be used in a transitive as well as in an intransitive sense. Thus, $ng\ddot{a}$ thuk-duk, I touch; nga thuk-duk, I meet.

Some tense suffixes show a preference for certain persons. Thus, forms such as *choruk*, does; *cho-song*, did, are more commonly used in the third than in the first and second persons. Forms such as *cho-at*, do; *chos-pin*, did, on the other hand, are comparatively seldom used in the third person. On the whole, however, the various persons are not distinguished, and every tense suffix *can* be used for all persons.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive has the bases duk, in, and yot. They are freely used in the formation of the tenses of other verbs. The forms at (Lower Ladakh et) and ok which are used in the same way, probably also contain various verbs substantive.

Present time.—The present base can always be found by rejecting the termination ches of the verbal noun. Thus, tang-ches, to give, present base tang.

The present base is often used alone in connexion with the negative particle mi; thus, mi thong, I do not see.

The usual present tense is formed from the present base by adding one of the auxiliaries duk, at (Lower Ladakh et), and ok. At is mostly used in lively conversation; in Lower Ladakh et is almost exclusively used. In Central Ladakh ok is only used with the verb in, to be, and rarely except in the third person. Thus, tang-duk, gives; yong-ngat, comes; in-nok, is. A final consonant is doubled before at and ok. Duk after vowels becomes ruk; thus, chha-ruk, goes.

A kind of compound present is formed from such verbs as denote a perception of the senses (with the exception of sight) or an action of the intellect, by adding rak, feels, to the infinitive ending in a; thus, shes-sa rak, I know.

A present definite is formed by adding duk to the participle ending in in or in-zhik; thus, las cho-in (-zhik) duk, he is doing work.

Past time.—The past base is formed from the present base by adding s; thus, tang-s, gave. If the present base ends in s, d, n, and often also if it ends in l or r, the past base does not differ from the present one. This is, moreover, always the case in the Changthang dialect, and in some intransitive verbs such as jung-ches, to happen; rak-ches, to feel; tshar-ches, to finish, and so forth. The past base of za-ches, to eat, is zo-s.

The past base is commonly used alone as a past tense. Thus, rak, he felt; thong-s, he saw; cho-s, he made.

A compound past is formed by adding in to the participle in pa, ba or spa. The final a of the suffix pa coalesces with the following in to in, or, if the base contains an i, to en. Thus, that-pin, liked; cho-s-pin, did; in-ben and yot-pin, was. Pin is often also added to the present tense ending in at, and this compound form denotes the continued or repeated action in the past; thus, thong-ngat-pin, saw often.

The participle ending in pa is used alone as a past tense before a direct statement, and, vulgarly, also at the end of a sentence. Thus, kho-s zer-pa, he said.

A compound past is also formed by adding yot-pin or ok to the conjunctive participle ending in te or ste, or the participle ending in pa. Thus, cho-s-te yot-pin, having done I was, I had done; zer-t-ok, said; tang-st-ok, gave; khyer-p-ok, carried off.

Other auxiliaries used in order to form past tenses are \underline{tshar} , finished, added to the present base; song, went, added to the past base; and \underline{tshuk} (Lower Ladakh \underline{tshogs}), like, similar (properly a dubitative addition), added to the present ending in at; thus, $\underline{shi-\underline{tshar}}$, died; $\underline{cho-s-song}$, did; $\underline{yong-ngat-\underline{tshuk}}$, came. In the case of the verb $\underline{za-ches}$, to eat, the past base is used before \underline{tshar} ; thus, $\underline{zo-\underline{tshar}}$, ate.

Future.—The future is formed by adding in to the present base. A preceding a is dropped; thus, tang-in, shall give; chhen, shall go. Chhen, shall go, is often added to the present base or to the infinitive ending in a; thus, khyong-chhen, shall bring; chhug-ga chhen, shall close.

Imperative.—The imperative base is formed by changing an a of the base to o, and by adding an s to verbs ending in a vowel. In verbs ending in a consonant and not containing an a, the present base is used in the imperative. Thus, sgang-ches, to fill; sgong, fill: lta-ches, to see; lto-s, look: zer-ches, to say; zer, say. Za-ches, to eat, has the imperative zo, eat.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ma to the present base; thus, $ma \ za$, do not eat.

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The final s is used in all imperatives before the imperative particle chik (lit. once) which accordingly becomes shik; thus, tong-shik, give.

The suffix ang is often added to the imperative; thus, zer-ang, say; tong-ang, give; zos-ang, eat. Note the s of the latter form.

Verbal Nouns.—Several tense bases are used as verbal nouns, and postpositions are added to them. Thus, las cho-na, work doing-in, if you do the work; las gyoks-pa cho-s-pin-na, if you had done the work quickly; las de cho-in-zhik, whilst doing that work.

The suffix in in cho-in-zhik is probably originally the suffix of a locative. It corresponds to kyin, gin, gin, yin, in classical Tibetan. The classical suffix seems to be formed from the genitive. The Ladakhi in is added to the present base, and in this way an adverbial participle is formed; thus, gucho tang-in tang-in duk-song, noise making-in making-in remained.

The base with the suffix a, before which a final consonant is doubled, is used as an infinitive; thus, drul- $la\ mi\ duk$, going-for not-is, he does not go; lta- $a\ song$, seeing-for went, he went to see. The suffix a is apparently the suffix a which forms datives and locatives of nouns, and corresponds to the classical la. Compare the locative meaning of a in sentences such as shi-ches- $la\ ma\ jiks$ - $sa\ bar$ -khan- $ni\ khang$ - $p\ddot{a}\ nang$ - $la\ song$, dying not fearing-in burning-of house-of interior-to went, not fearing death she entered the burning house.

The most common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix ches or che. In Lower Ladakh the suffix has the form chas, in Rong and Upper Ladakh che. The verbal noun is inflected like an ordinary noun. The dative ending in ches-la, chas-la, che-a, etc., is used as an infinitive of purpose. Thus, thong-ches, to see; ngalte yot-ches-si phi-la, tired being-of sake-for, because he was tired; yong-ches-la or yong-ches-si phi-la, in order to come.

The classical suffix pa, ba is sometimes also used, especially with the postposition phi-la; thus, $in-b\ddot{a}$ phi-la, being-of sake-for, in order to be; $mi\ mang-po\ dzoms-pa-sang$, men many gathering from, because many men had gathered.

Participles.—Some participles are simply various cases of the verbal noun. Such forms have already been mentioned above.

The common suffix of the present and past participle is *khan*, added to the present or past base; thus, *tang-khan*, giving; *tang-s-khan*, given. This participle is commonly used as a relative participle. Compare the remarks under the head of relative pronouns above.

The suffix pa, ba is used to form a participle which is freely employed in the formation of past tenses. Thus, zer-pa, or, commonly, zer-pin, said. Compare the remarks under the head of past time, above.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix te to the present or past base; thus, zer-te, saying; song-s-te, having gone.

Passive Voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent in the subject. Forms such as *khyong-s-te duk*, having-brought is, it is brought, have originally an active as well as a passive meaning.

Causal.—The causal was originally formed by means of a prefix s; thus, gang-ches, to be full; sgang-ches, to fill. The old initials have been modified in various ways;

thus, drul-ches, to go; shrul-ches, to make go: bud-ches, to cease; phud-ches, to stop: chhad-ches, to be cut off; chad-ches, to cut, and so forth.

A modern causative is formed by adding *chhuk-ches*, to put in, to the present base; thus, *chha-chhuk-duk*, he makes go, ne sends off.

Negative voice.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi or ma. Mi is used in the present and future, and before the verbal noun. Ma is used in the past tense and in the imperative. It is further commonly used before the conjunctive participle, the dative, ablative, and locative cases of the verbal noun ending in a, pasang, and na, and so forth. Thus, mi thong, he does not see; mi chha, I shall not go; mi tang-in, not giving; ma thong-s, did not see: ma yong-s-pin, did not come; ma chos-song, did not do; ma zer-tok, did not say; ma tang, do not give; las di ma tang, work this not finishingin, if you do not finish this work.

Various compound negative bases are used; thus, cho-in-zhik mi duk, doing not is, he does not do; tang-nga mi duk, he does not give; ngal-la mi rak, does not feel tired; cho-a met, is not doing; cho ma tshar, to do not finished, did not do; silla met-pin, was not reading; chos-te met-pin, had not done; yongnga met-tshuk, came not, and so forth.

Interrogative particle.—An a is added to the verb in interrogative sentences if they do not contain an interrogative pronoun. A preceding consonant is doubled before a; thus, khyo-rang yong-in-na, will you come?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The genitive precedes the qualified noun, adjectives and numerals usually follow it.

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Francke's grammar. The specimens which follow represent the spoken dialect of Ladakh, but the orthography of the literary language is used.

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(Leh, Ladakh.)

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(LEH, LADAKH.)

Mibu-tsha ghnyis yod-pin. De-nas chhung-po-s zhig-la twowere. Then Man one-to sons son young-by a-pha-la zhus-pa, 'a-pha-le, nga-la thob-os-mkhan-ni nor-skal nga-la father-to requested, 'father-o, me-to to-be-got-fit-being property-share me-to a-pha-s bgos. De-nas stsal, zhus-pa-sang nor mang-mo ma father-by divided. Then said-having property muchgive,' notgor-te bu-tsha chhung-ngun-po khur-ste yul thag-ring young property taking-with-him delaying son country zhig-ga Nor tshang-ma phres-tor-bchos. langs-song. Nor sag started. Property allProperty one-to spent-made. allyul-la mu-ge $\mathbf{d}\mathbf{e}$ drag-po zhig tshar-te yong-s-te kho-la country-in famine heavythat onefinishing come-having him-to De-nas kho song-s-te yul-pa dkags-po song. chig dang thug-s-te Then he gone-having citizen difficulty went.withmet-having zhing-kha-la phag tsho-ba-la kho btang-s. de-s De-ru phag-kun-nis field-in-to swine feeding-for him sent. him-by There pigs-byza-mkhan-ni gang-lo yang rang-ngi grod-pa grang-behug-ches-la thad-na-ang, belly satisfied-making-for wishing-in-although, husks even own eating-of ghtang-mkhan su-yang De-nas kho-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ yong-s. bsam-blo any-one him-to consideration come-having giving came. Then 'ngai a-pha-la gla-pa mang-po yod-de; kho-kun-la zer-pa, za-rgyu said, · my father-to servants many being; them-to foodyod. Nga-ni i-ru ltog-ri-la mang-po shi-ches-rag. Danga I-on-the-other-hand here much hunger-in die. Now \boldsymbol{I} a-phai rtsar "nam-mkha song-s-te, lang-s-te dang nyi-rang-ngi father-of arisen-having ίο gone-having, "heaven and you-of

bu-tsha zer-os-chan nyi-rang-ngi ma bcho-s-pa-sang mdun-du nyes-pa your to-say-worthy sonnot sindone-having-from before de-zug mdzad," dran-dra zhig dang nyi-rang-ngi gla-pa yin-te, nga alikemake," thus withyour servant one being, me aphai drung-du song. A-pha-s lang-s-te zhu-vin,' bsam-s-te Father-by thought-having arisen-having father-of towent. say-will, snying-rje bu-<u>ts</u>hai r<u>ts</u>a-r thag-ring-nas vong-nga mthong-s-te tshor-te feeling son-of near to-come seen-having compassion far-from btang-s-te] kho-la am btang-s. De-nas rgyug-s-te skyen-jus him-to kiss gave. Then [embracing given-having] run-having nam-mkha dang nyirang-ngi mdun-du nyes-pa bu-tsha-s, 'a-pha-le, nga-s 'father-o, me-by heaven andyour before sinson-by, bchos-pa-sang da-nas-phar-la nyi-rang-ngi bu-tsha zer-os-chan man, done-having-from now-from-since your sonsay-fit not-am, rgyal-la zhu-s. A-pha-s ghyog-po-kun-la, 'da gon-chhes tshang-mai sang Father-by servants-to, 'now clothallfrom goodsaid.ghser-ghdub, rkang-pa-la zhig i-ru khyong-ste kho-la skon: lag-pa-la brought-having hand-on gold-ring, foot-on one herehim-to put; kab-sha skon-chig. Chi-phi-la zer-na, ngai bu-tsha shi-ste yang shoe alsoput. What-for said-if, myson died-having ghson-te song; stor-te log-s-te thob-pa-sang, nga-tang-ngi sems lost-being found-being-from, our soulalivewent; again dga-mo bcho dgos,' de-zug kho-kun skyid-po bcho-ba-la langs. zer-te cheerful makemust, thus saying they merry make-to began.

De-za-na a-jo zhing-nas log-ste Khang-pa dang yong-s. That-time-at elder-brother field-from backcame. House with sleb-kyi-ma rol-mo dang rtsem-'ajo ghyog-po zhig-la tshor-pa-sang, arriving musicnear and hearing-from, servant one-to dancing 'i-bo bod-de, chi bcho-ba-yin-nog? zer-te dris-pa-sang, ghyog-po-s, 'this what doing-are? calling, saying asking-from, servant-by, 'khyo-rang-ngi bslebs. A-pha-s kho khams-bzang-po-la no 'your younger-brother came. Father-by hehealth-good-in log-ste thob zer-te mgron bcho-ba-yod,' tshor-pa-sang kho-la was-found backfeast saying making-is,' hearing-from him-to anger vong-s-te nang-la chha-ches $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ thad. De-phi-la a-pha phi-log-la come-having insideto-go notwished. Therefore father outsidebing-s-te dpe-ra bde-mo-nas, 'nang-la slu-s. Kho-s yong, zer-te come-having way friendly-in, 'inside come, entreated. Him-by saying a-pha-la, 'nga-s lo nyi-rang-ngi zhabs-tog bchos-te i-zam-zhig father-to, "me-by service years se-many your done-having

yang; nyi-rang-ngi-s ngai galnyi-rang-ngi bka-nas nam-yang \mathbf{m} a myyou-by not transgressed even; ever your word-from nga-la ri-gu zhig yang phi-la bcho-ches-si sgol-sgol mdza-bo-kun dang evenme-to kidsake-for making-of withfeast friends lo-li chhung-ngun-po nyi-rang-ngi bu-tsha Yin-na-yang \mathbf{m} a stsal-song. harlots young Being-in-even sonyour gavest. not $ma-thog-\underline{ts}e$ sleb god-la btang-s-te nor sag gran-te dang arrived immediately given-having loss-in intercourse-having property all with'khyod-rang a-pha-s mol-pa, zhig mdzad-s.' De-nas mgron khoi phi-la 'you father-by said, Then gavest.' hissake-for feast onetshang-ma nga-la yod-mkhan dug-ste dang mnyam-po nam-sang nga allme-to being withtogetherbeen-having alwaysme shi-<u>ts</u>har-te Da khyo-rang-ngi nokhyod-kyi yang yin. younger-brother died-having yours Nowyour alsois.bcho dgos.' dga-mo stor-te thob-pa-sang sems ghson; must. makelives; lost-having-been found-because mindmerry

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TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A PIECE OF LADAKHI FOLK-LORE.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

VOL. III, PART I.

(Leh, Ladakh.)

्त्रां ठेमा भार्के दान्येक के के ले निर्मेन येव। विष्या अदारा असा सामि के भार्के दास के सामि सामि के सामि सामि *क्टे*प्रायान्यस्थितः स्थाप्ता स्थाप्ता स्थाप्ता स्थाप्ता स्थापता स्यापता स्थापता स्थापता स्थापता स्थापता स्थापता स्थापता स्थापता स हिंदिका के स्टर्शिया है हिंदि लिया मात्र प्येव यसमासारमा बेरसा देशका मिर्गिश्य । प्राकेश्य मिर्गिश्य विकास के मिर्गिश्य के र्द्धर-देश्वर-द्वम्। मिर्फा देवे मिटायायाञ्चेया अनुमिना ये विमान्दार भेरिका देना अर येद्रायद्वर । मूर्विमा येद्रा सु माम्बरपहर विमार्भेट्स ने द्विंस बेर पतुमा बुस प्यासर। ध्या है पा वेर से प्रेन्स के प्राह्म से प्राहम से प्राह्म से प्राहम से प्राहम से प्राह्म से प्राह यस्रस्य दे संस्थित स्थाने स्था मकुरूर्यसम्भिः मिन्ते स्वरम् मे स्वर्भाने स्वरम् स्वरम् । स्वरम् स्वरम्यम् स्वरम् स्वरम्यम् स्वरम् स्वरम्यम्यम् स्वरम् स्वरम्यम् स्वरम् त्रमःसेन्याकी अटान्याया के व्यापार्ये के अपन्यसम्भाने अस्य के साम के स्वापार्य के साम के स्वापार्य के साम के स मिन्द्राचात्रास्त्रीयश्चरते त्रात्रास्त्रास्त्र हेश हे यत् द्रात्र देश विश्वराय स्त्रीयश्चरते विश्वराय हो यत् व नग्भाकृष्ट्रिय। मित्रिपुस्सम्पद्गनसम्बद्धान्त्रम्भान्त्रम्भान्त्रम्भान्त्रम्भान्त्रम्भान्त्रम्भान्त्रम् इर र्शेट बेर हे यह दर्श मिं आवट दे प्रदाय या श्रेय अने अपवट देश नहार मिंहिर हो मिंहिर था मिंहिर या यह से ने अन्तर्भाविकार्या ने विकामिकाष्माविद्याप्याविद्याच्या के त्या के स्वामिका ष्पल्टान्टाष्पाने मानेशामा सर्हेन् त्यानिंटाष्प्रसानु कं मानेशमाने से त्या के मान्टाप्येन मानसानकें न €.当去.た! भार्शेद! गाते मि देव र्रोकेते क्षेत्र र्रेत् विषा मिर्ग्युव सर्हित भारति के सिर्ग्या भारति विषय स्थापा स्यापा स्थापा स्य नलमानिः भीकातुना भेषा भीता। ने तथा मिं भीकातुना यहा मुखानि स्ति न से मान्यस्य भीता नश्यस्य ने दियानि स्ति स्ति निम्मास्य स्थार्थेत्। अवित्र अवित्र स्थार्थे देशस्य देशस्य देशस्य देशस्य स्थार्थे स्यार्थे स्थार्ये स्थार्थे स्थार्थे स्थार्थे स्थार्थे स्थार्थे स्थार्थे स्थार्ये स्थार्ये स्थार्ये स्थार्थे स्थार्ये स्थार्थे स्थार्ये स्थाये स्थार्ये स्थार्ये स्थार्ये स्थाये स्थार्ये स्थार्ये स्थाये स्थार्ये स्थाये स नक्षः अनुगति। मार्थितः सदिः भ्रीकः सेतः सर्वेदस्य। सुन्ताः स्तिनाः से भ्रीकः से विक्राः देनाः त्रः से विक्रां निवासः स यानश्चेनशाने के प्रवृत्तामान न वित्रा । ष्यामशान न वित्रा वित्रा

[No. 5.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LADAKHĪ DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

A PIECE OF LADAKHĪ FOLK-LORE.

(Rev. S. Ribbach, 1899.)

(Leh, Ladakh.)

tshong-dpon chhen-mo zhig yod-pin. Kho shi-pa-sang a-ma Dus chig-la Time one-at merchant-master greatone was.Hedying-from mother tshir-la dang bu-tsha-la nor tshang-ma tshar. Rting-la allsuccession-in son-to was-finished. andproperty Afterwards zhig-po ghzhan chang-med-mkhan song-pa-sang, sring-mo tshong-dpon zbig-la anything-not-having went-because, sisteronly othermerchantone-to khyer-ste yod-pin, a-ma-s, ' da khyod a-chhe rtsar song. wifetaken-having was, mother-by, ' now thouelder-sister neargo.ghtang-yin bsam-ma rag,' Chi-tong-zhig zer-s. De-nas kho song. Something give-will thinking perceive,' said. Thenhewent. 'kho-kun-la zin-tog,' A-chhe-la, nor tshor-te yod-tshug. Kho 'them-to went, Elder-sister-to, property heard-having was. Hea-chhei khang-pa-la sleb-za-na ghyog-po \mathbf{zhig} 'nga yong-s-tog, dang, zer. arriving-in sister-of house-to servantwith. came. say, btangs. Ghyog-po-s, 'phru-gu rgan-jar lon zhig yong-s-te. "Itos." Servant-by, · boy sent. raggedmessage onecome-having, " see," a-chhe-la zer-dug, zhus-pa-sang nor med-ches-si rgyus yod-pa-sang, saying-after elder-sister-to property not-being-of knowledge being-from, vin, bsams-te bra-zan bdun 'ming-po rus-te de bdun-khai thinking buckwheat-dumplings seven kned-having those • brother seven nang-la chhangs-pa-gang re ghserbchug-ste, 'kho nang-la yong-behug-ste handful' him into goldput-having, insidecome-made-having chi bcho-yin? 'kha-kye rdzun-btang-ste dang bkal-song. Kho-s ghyog-po dowill?' scolding pretence-given-having servant withHim-bynang-la khur-ste thu-bai sro yong-s-te khang-pa-la log-ste song. Lam intocarrying anger come-having house-tc coat-flap backwent. Road

nga-la re-ste phed-la, 'i-sang darang rgyal-la thob-vin. 'this-from now me-to begged-having evengoodhalf-in, be-got-should. zam-pa zhig-gi yog-la bra-zan tshang-ma bor-te song. bsam-s-te Kho under dumplings thought-having bridge one-of allputting went. Hekhang-pa-la sleb-s-te a-ma-s. 'a-chhe-s btang-s?' chi dris. house-to arrived-having mother-by, 'elder-sister-by whatgave?' asked.Kho-s. nga nang-la bsnven-te $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ ghyog-po zhig dan⊈ bra-zan Him - by, 'me insidenotadmitted-having servantone withdumplings bdun khyong-s.' Khoi. ' de bkal-ste su-s za-yin, bsams-te sent-having brought.' Him-by, seven' that whom-by eat-will, thinking yog-la bor-te yong-s-pin,' Yang zer-s. a-ma-s. 'da a-zhang-ngi rtsar came, underputting said.Andmother-by, 'now uncle-of near Kho a-zhang-ngi khang-pa-la sleb-za-na a-zhang-ngi-s song,' zer-te btang-s. go,saying sent. Heuncle-of house-to arriving-on nan-gla khrid-de khver-s. Kho-la ya-sha bchos-te za-ches zhim-po btang-s. insideleading took. Him-to lovedone-having foodnicegave. De-nas kho-s a-zhang dang a-ne-la skyid-sdug bshad-song. Rting-la, Then him-by unclewithaunt-to joy-woe told. Afterwards, kho-s. 'da nga khang-pa-la chha-yin ju,' zer-pa-sang a-zhang dang a-ne him-by, ' now I house-to pray,' saying-from go-will with aunt uncleghnvis-ka mdzod-la, 'khong bu-<u>ts</u>ha a-ma ghnvis-kai phi-la chi 'them bothstore-room-to, mothersontwo-of sake-for what ghtang-vin,' grabs bcho-ba-la song. Kai-kha rin-po-chhei ske-chha give-shall, considerationdo-to went. Pillar-on precious necklaceyod-tshug. Kho-kun mdzod-la song-ste kho-s ka-la bltas-pa-sang was. They $store ext{-}room ext{-}to$ gone-having him-by pillar-on looking-after ka rang-bzbin-la bzhag-te ske-chha nub-ste yang sgrig-song. De-nas pillaritself ofsplit-having necklace sunk-having again closed.Then kho. 'ske-chha nub-pa-sang rkus-te khyer-pog, bsam-yin,' bsam-s-te 'necklace sinking-from stolen-having took-off, think-will, thought-having khrel-te shor-te khang-pa-la A-zhang song. a-ne ghnyîs khoi ashamed-being fled-having house-to went. Uncle aunt his twophi-la nor khur-te yong-za-na, kho song-ste med. Da, sake-for goodscarrying coming-on, he gone-having was-not-there. Then, 'kho-s chi khur-ste song?' blta-za-na kai-kha yod-pai ske-chha ' him-by what carried-having went?' seeing-on pillar-on being necklace med mthong-s. 'Phru-gu rtsog-po ske-chha-po khyer-tog, da $_{
m mi}$ stog,' not-was saw. 'Boy badcarried-off, now not necklacematters,' zer-s. De-nas kho khang-pa-la bsleb-s-te chibyung-mkhan bshad-s. said. Then house-to arrived-having happening told.whatVOL. III, PART I. к 2

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A-ma-s, 'nga-tang-la bsod-de med-pa-sang chang ma nyan,'

Mother-by, 'us-to good-fortune not-being-from anything not is-possible,'

zer-s.

said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there lived a rich merchant. After his death the property of his widow and son gradually dwindled away. The boy had a sister who was married to another merchant. When nothing was left of the property the mother said, 'go now to your elder sister. I think she will give you something.' Then he went there. The elder sister had heard that their property had been lost.

When he had reached his sister's house, he asked some servant to go and say, 'I have come.' The servant went and said, 'a ragged boy has come and asks you to receive him.' The elder sister, who knew that they had no property left, thought that it must be her brother. She made seven dumplings of buckwheat, put a handful of gold into them, and sent them through the servant, under the pretence of scolding, saying, 'what is the use of making him enter?' The boy took the dumplings off in his coat and returned home in an angry mood. Midway he threw the dumplings under a bridge, because he thought that he ought to have got something better.

When he came home, his mother asked, 'what did your sister give you?' He answered, 'she did not receive me into the house, but sent a servant with seven dumplings.' He said, 'I left them under a bridge for whomsoever to eat.' Said the mother, 'now you must go to your uncle,' and sent him off.

When he came to his uncle's house, the uncle took him into the house, treated him well, and gave him nice food. He told his uncle and aunt all his joy and woe. Afterwards, when he said that he must return home, the uncle and aunt went to the store-room in order to consider what they should give mother and son. Now a precious necklace was placed on a pillar, and after they had gone to the store-room he was looking at the pillar, when it burst open of itself. The necklace disappeared, and then the pillar closed again. The boy ran home full of shame thinking, 'since the necklace has disappeared, they will think that I have stolen it.'

When the uncle and aunt returned with some presents for him, then he was gone. They looked around to see whether he had carried off anything and saw that the necklace had disappeared. 'Never mind,' they said, 'the wicked boy has stolen it.'

When he came home he told what had happened, and the mother said, 'we have illluck, and therefore nothing goes well.'

LAHUL DIALECT.

Tibetan is spoken in Lahul along the headwaters of the Chandra and Bhaga down to within fifteen miles of their junction, especially about Kolung in the Bhaga Valley and at Koksur in the Chandra Valley.

In Pangi, the portion of Chamba lying beyond the Mid-Himalayan range, Tibetan is, moreover, spoken throughout that mountain portion of the district which lies below the western Himalayas.

No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded from the districts in which this dialect is spoken. At the Census of 1891, the figures were as follows:—

Lahul .	•	•	•		•		•	•	•	•	•	•		1,212
\mathbf{Chamba}	•	•		•	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	3 67
											To	TAL	•	1,579

No new materials have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. The Lahul dialect has, however, been mentioned and partly described by the late Rev. H. A. Jaeschke, and it will therefore be possible to make some few remarks which it is hoped will be sufficient to show how the dialect should be classed.

AUTHORITIES-

JAESCHKE, H. A.,—Über die Phonetik der Tibetischen Sprache. Monatsberichte der Königlich Preussischen Akademie der Wissenschaften zu Berlin, 1867, pp. 148 and ff. Contains a short specimen on p. 182.

., —A Tibetan-English Dictionary with special reference to the prevailing dialects. To which is added an English-Tibetan Vocabulary. London, 1881. Contains a list of words in the Lahul dialect on pp. xvi and ff.

The Lahul dialect is a kind of link between Western and Central Tibetan. It does not possess the tones of Central Tibetan. On the other hand, it in many details agrees with the Tibetan of Spiti.

Phonology.—Concurrent vowels are contracted; thus, khai, classical kha-i, of the mouth; $m\bar{e}$, classical me-i, of the fire; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical ri-i, of the hill; khoi, classical kho-i, his; sui, classical su-i, whose?

Single initial consonants are the same as in classical Tibetan, and there are no traces of the strong aspiration of soft consonants which is so pronounced in Spiti.

Final g, and often also final d, are very imperfectly sounded. The result is an abrupt short pronunciation of the preceding vowel, which I have noted by adding the sign'. Thus, tho', classical thog, roof; phu'-ron, classical phug-ron, a pigeon; gon-me', classical mgon-med, helpless. This slurring of a final d does not appear to be a regular feature of the dialect. A similar state of affairs prevails in the dialects of \ddot{U} and Tsang.

A final s is changed to i; thus, nai, classical nas, barley; shei, classical shes, know; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical ris, figure; $chh\bar{o}$, classical chhos, religion; $l\bar{u}$, classical lus, body. Besides these we also find Central Tibetan forms such as $n\bar{a}$; $sh\bar{e}$; $chh\bar{o}$; $l\bar{u}$.

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A final s after a consonant is simply dropped; thus, nag, classical nags, forest; thab, classical thabs, way, manner; nam, classical rnams, many.

Other final consonants are left unchanged.

In compound consonants ending in a subscribed y, the y is dropped before an i, and often also before an e. Labials and y become palatals; in other cases both sounds remain. Thus, phi, classical phyi, behind; be-ma, classical bye-ma, sand; chhag, classical phyag, hand; ja-mo, classical bya-mo, hen; khyod, thou, and so forth.

Hard consonants and r are changed to cerebrals. Thus, tad-pa, classical krad-pa, shoe; thag, classical khrag, blood; don-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, child. Occasionally, forms such as dri, classical gri, knife; bra-wo, classical bra-bo, buckwheat, are also heard.

Sr becomes shr; thus, shring-mo, classical sring-mo, sister.

Zl becomes d; thus, da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

Db is dropped; thus, ang, classical dbang, might.

An r is sometimes preserved before gutturals; thus, rkang-pa, and kang-pa, foot; rnga and nga, five. Rj becomes zh; rts becomes s; rdz becomes z; thus, $zh\bar{e}$, classical rges, after; sa, classical rtsa, vein; za-ma, classical rdza-ma, a pot.

Sby becomes zh in zhar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, a certain tree.

In most other cases compounds are simplified in such a way that the first component is dropped. Thus, log-pa, classical klog-pa, to read; ta, classical rta, horse; go, classical sgo, door; chig, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; dun, classical bdun, seven, and so forth.

Tones are hardly used in the dialect. The abrupt tone indicating the dropping of a final consonant the Lahul dialect shares with the Tibetan of Tsang and Ü. It has not, however, anything to do with the ordinary Tibetan tone system.

Inflexion.—Our information about the inflexion of nouns and verbs is exceedingly scanty. We only know that the usual suffix of the verbal noun is *che*.

For further details the student is referred to the list of words in Mr. Jaeschke's dictionary. A short specimen follows. It has been taken from Mr. Jaeschke's paper on the phonological system of Tibetan mentioned under authorities above. The stress has been indicated by putting a 'above the accented syllable.

[No. 6.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LAHUL DIALECT.

(Rev. H. A. Jaeschke; 1866.)

nyan-yó'-na Dí-ka' dag-gi thoi-pa, dúi-chig-na Chom-dan-dai Śrānestī-in the-Exalted-one This-word me-by heard, time-one-in gval-jé'-kyi zhúg-so. gyal-bu tshal gon-me'-zai-jín-gyi kun-ga-rá-wa-na lived. victory-of Anāthapiņdada's pleasure-grove-in prince woodDeï-<u>ts</u>hé gyál-po dang Sal-gyál-la lón-po chhén-po kha**í-**pa rig-pa That-time kingPrasēnajit-to ministerknowledge with greatgreatgyur-nä dán-pa \mathbf{z} hig yó'-de, dei chhung-ma sém-chan dang dán-par possessed being, becoming onehiswife childwithto-be khyeu tshan dan-pa dang ja'-zúg lég-pa pe-já' dá-me`-pa childmarks with possessed shape-good good secondary-marks incomparable zhig tsái-te, tshan-khan bói-nä, bu tán-pa-dang tshan-khan-gyi one having-been-born, astrologershowing-on astrologer-by calling, childgá-wai dáng-kyi dí-ka' $ch\bar{e}$ mrái-so. happylook-with this-word thussaid.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Thus I have heard. The Blessed one was once dwelling at Śrāvastī, in the Jētavana, in Auāthapiṇḍada's park. Now at that time king Prasēnajit had a prime minister of great knowledge. His wife became with child, and a son was born who possessed all the lucky marks, great beauty, and all the secondary lucky marks. An astrologer was summoned, and when the child had been shown to him, he said with a happy look as follows.

CENTRAL TIBETAN.

The Tibetan dialects spoken to the east of Lahul and to the west of the Tibetan province of Khams agree in several important points. The most salient feature of these forms of speech is the use of a system of tones which is foreign to the western dialects and to the language of Khams. Compare the remarks in the general introduction to the Tibetan language. Moreover, the dialects in question as a rule agree in simplifying the compound consonants of classical Tibetan. The same is the case with the Tibetan of Lahul, and that dialect can therefore be described as a link between Western Tibetan and our group, which has been described as Central Tibetan. It comprises the central dialect of Tibet, spoken in the provinces of Ü and Tsang, and several smaller dialects spoken in British India, Nepal, Sikkim, and Bhutan.

The various dialects of Central Tibetan agree generally in grammar. The phonetical system is essentially the same. The compound consonants of classical Tibetan have, however, sometimes been simplified in different ways. It will therefore be of interest to compare the phonology of these forms of speech with the written language of classical Tibetan.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

The dialect of Central Tibet is the *lingua franca* of the Tibetan country, and it is generally understood everywhere in Tibet in addition to the local dialects. Central Tibet comprises the provinces of Ü and Tsang. Lhasa is situated in the former, and the Lhasa dialect has sometimes been described as the standard form of Tibetan. It is comparatively well known, and it has been dealt with in most of the works mentioned under the head of authorities in the general introduction to the Tibetan language. It is therefore not necessary to give a detailed account of its grammar. It will be sufficient to draw attention to the principal features of phonology, as compared with the classical language of Tibetan literature, and to give a rapid sketch of the grammatical system. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, for which I am indebted to Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, will be added.

The home of the Central Tibetan dialect does not fall within the scope of this Survey. Nor are we in a position to judge how many of the six millions of people who are estimated to live in Tibet use that form of the language. On the other hand, it has been brought by immigrants to various parts of India. It has been reported under different names, such as Bhōṭiā, Huniyā, Shalgno, Kazi, Lama, etc. It is probable that some of these denominations cover some slightly different dialect. No great inconvenience can, however, arise from their being shown under the head of Central Tibetan. It should also be borne in mind that several minor forms of speech such as Jad, Nyamkat, Kāgate, Sharpa, Dānjongkā, Lhokā, etc., are closely related to the Tibetan of Lhasa. They will, however, be dealt with separately because they fall more or less within the scope of this Survey, and the figures will therefore be shown under each of them.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey, Central Tibetan was spoken in the following districts where it has proved impossible to decide whether the speakers belong to any known sub-dialect:—

	I	District.		Name u	nder w	hich re	turned	ı.	Number of speakers.		
Almora Sikkim ","	·	•	 •	 Bhōtiyā or Bhōtiā Bhōtiā La Tibetan St Tibetan La Kazi Shalgno Bhōtiā	ma andar	•			820 800 1,000 900 400 1,000 900 2,148		
- 0						To	FAL	•	7,968		

With regard to the corresponding figures returned at the last Census of 1901, the remarks in the general introduction to Tibetan should be consulted.

Pronunciation.—Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration so that the actual sound is almost that of the corresponding hard consonant; thus, bhu and pu, classical Tibetan bu, son. Similarly, an inhabitant of Lhasa would say shing instead of classical zhing, field, and the only difference made between an initial sh corresponding to zh in classical Tibetan and an old sh is that the former is pronounced with the high tone.

Final g is pronounced as k; thus, chik, classical gchig, one. It is often so indistinctly sounded that it is scarcely perceptible.

Final b is generally pronounced as p; thus, yap, classical yab, father.

Final d, n, s, and sometimes also l, modify a preceding vowel so that a becomes \ddot{a} ; o becomes \ddot{o} , and u becomes \ddot{u} . D and s are, moreover, dropped. When d is dropped the preceding vowel is pronounced in an abrupt short way, in what is generally known as the abrupt tone. When s is dropped the preceding vowel is lengthened. Thus, $tham\text{-}ch\ddot{a}$, classical tham-chad, all; $y\ddot{o}$, classical yod, is; $khy\ddot{u}$, classical, akhyud, embrace; $g\ddot{a}n\text{-}pa$, classical rgan-pa, elder; $l\ddot{o}n\text{-}pa$, classical lon-pa, to pass; $k\ddot{u}n$, classical kun, all; $ng\ddot{n}$, classical ngas, by me; $d\ddot{e}$, classical des, by him; $g\ddot{o}$, classical bgos, divide; $dh\ddot{u}$, classical dus, time; $k\ddot{a}l\text{-}wa$, classical skal-ba, share.

Final n followed by p or b sounds as m.

Final s after consonants is dropped and the preceding consonant is treated as if it were a final. Gs is, however, often dropped altogether; thus, $n\bar{a}$, classical nags, forest; $l\bar{e}$ -pa, classical legs-pa, good; $r\bar{\imath}$, classical rigs, class; $l\bar{\imath}$, classical logs, side; $l\bar{\imath}$, classical lugs, manner, etc., in Lhasa.

Compound consonants are simplified in various ways. The written language, on the other hand, retains them in accordance with the practice of classical Tibetan.

In such compounds as are written with a sub joined y this y remains unchanged after gutturals; with labials it coalesces to palatals. Thus, kyang, even; gyur, become; chhir, classical phyir, for the sake of; jhye-pa, che-pa, classical byed-pa, to do.

Compounds of a mute consonant and a subscribed r become cerebrals. Nr, mr, and sometimes also br, remain unchanged; hr is commonly pronounced as shr, and sr as s.

In many cases, however, the subscribed r is simply dropped in $\ddot{\mathbf{U}}$. Compare ta, classical skra, hair; $dh\ddot{o}$ -pa, $t\ddot{o}$ -pa, classical grod-pa, belly; tung-du, classical drung-du, before; $mr\ddot{a}$ -pa, classical smras-pa, said; thugu and phugu, classical phrugu, fill:

Zl becomes d; thus, da-va, classical zla-ba, moon.

Db is dropped; thus, \overline{U} , written dbus, name of one of the provinces of Tibet.

Other compounds are simplified in such a way that the first consonant or consonants are dropped. Thus, $gy\ddot{a}$, written brgyad, eight; nga, written lnga, five; chik, written gchig, one; $d\ddot{u}n$, written bdun, seven, etc.

Article.—The numeral chik, one, is often used as an indefinite article. After vowels, except o, and after m, r, or l, chik is often changed to shik. In the modern colloquial, however, chik is common in all connexions.

The demonstrative pronouns di, this, dhe, that, are often used in the colloquial as a definite article; thus, mi-dhe, the man; $t\ddot{a}$ -pa di, the ladder.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of different words or by adding suffixes or prefixes such as pa, po, etc., male; ma, mo, etc., female; thus, a-pha, father; a-ma, mother: khyo-po, husband; khyo-mo, wife: jha-pa, cock; jha-mo, hen: $y\bar{\imath}$ -pa, boy; mo- $y\bar{\imath}$, girl, etc.

Number.—The usual plural suffixes are <u>tsho</u>, cha or chak, and nam.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The dative is formed by adding la; thus, la-ma-la, to a monk. The same form is also used as a locative. The suffix na is used to form another locative. The suffix of the ablative is $n\ddot{a}$, or, sometimes, $l\ddot{a}$. The so-called terminative, which denotes motion towards and which is formed by adding one of the suffixes du, tu, su, ru, and r, is not in use in the colloquial.

The genitive is formed by adding gi after final k and ng; i or yi after vowels, and kyi in all other cases. The case of the agent is formed by lengthening the final i of the genitive; thus, rang-gi, self of, own; nga-i, my; khye-kyi, your; yap-kyi, by the father. It will be seen that old finals such as the silent d of khyed, you, is considered as extant and that hence the termination kyi is employed, although the final is no longer heard in pronunciation.

In words ending in a vowel the case of the agent is also formed by lengthening and modifying the vowel as if an s had been dropped; thus, $la-m\ddot{a}$ or $la-ma-y\bar{i}$, by a Lama.

Adjectives.—Adjectives almost always follow the noun they qualify. In classical Tibetan they often precede it, being then placed in the genitive, and the same can also be the case in the colloquial. The suffix $l\ddot{a}$ of the ablative is used as a particle of comparison; thus, mi-dhe- $l\ddot{a}$ mi di $ng\ddot{a}n$ -pa-re, man-that-from man this bad-is, this man is worse than that man.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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nga, I. khy\ddot{o}, khye, thou. kho, honorific khong, he. nga-y\bar{\imath}, ng\ddot{a}, by me. khy\ddot{o}-ky\bar{\imath}, by thee. kho-y\bar{\imath}, kh\ddot{o}, by him. khy\ddot{o}-kyi, thy. khoi, his.
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The plural is formed by adding the usual suffixes. Before $\underline{ts}ho$ an n is often inserted, so that we hear $ngan-\underline{ts}ho$, we; $khyen-\underline{ts}ho$, you; $khon-\underline{ts}ho$, they, etc.

Rang, self, can be added to all the personal pronouns; thus, nga-rang-ghi, my own.

Other pronouns are dak, kho-wo, $nga-\underline{ts}ok$, I; nyi-rang, nyi-chak, thou; $nge-\underline{ts}ho$, we; kho-wa, dhe-dak, they; mo, she; di, this; dhe, that; di-ka, this one; dhe-ga, that one; ha-gi, that just yonder; pha-gi, that far off; ya-gi, that up there; ma-gi, this down below; su, who? ghang, which? what? gha-re, what? chi, what? and so forth.

Verbs.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. The most common ones are yin-pa, re-pa, $y\tilde{o}-pa$, and duk-pa or du-pa. Polite forms are $chh\tilde{i}-pa$ and $l\tilde{a}-pa$ or lak-pa. Yin-pa and re-pa are the simple copula; $y\ddot{o}-pa$ and du-pa mean 'to be', 'to exist.' An intensive verb substantive is $m\ddot{o}-pa$, to be indeed. The negative copula is min-pa, and the negative of $y\ddot{o}-pa$ is me-pa.

With regard to finite verbs it should be remarked that the modern colloquial in most cases uses the perfect base of the literary dialect in all tenses.

The o which is added to the verb in classical Tibetan is commonly dropped in the colloquial.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, kho-rang-ghī shambhu ghön, he wears a cap. The most common present is, however, formed by adding yö or du to the participle ending in ghi (classical gin). Ghi yö is almost exclusively used in the third person. Ghi can also be followed by yin and re, and the present ending in ghi-re is very common in Eastern Tibet. Compare nga-rang-ghī dung-ghi-yö, I strike; khyö-rang-ghī dung-ghi-du, thou strikest. Periphrastic presents are formed by adding the verb substantive to gang preceded by the genitive of the verbal noun ending in pa, wa, or to kap preceded by the base; thus, nga do-wai gang-yin, I am just going; di thi-kap-yö, I am just bringing it.

Past time.—A common past tense is formed by adding song, or, in the case of many verbs, jhung; thus, shi-song, died; thong-jhung, saw. Such forms do not appear to be used in the first person.

A common past tense is also formed from the participle or verbal noun ending in pa, wa, by adding yin in the first person and du or re in the second and third. Thus, $ch\ddot{a}$ -pa-yin, I did; thop-pa-du, he got.

Yö and du can also be added to the base; thus, \underline{dzang} -du, he was sent. The base alone is also employed; thus, nang, gave.

Compound forms such as dul- $n\ddot{a}$ $y\ddot{o}$, having walked am, I have walked; kho-pa to $s\ddot{a}$ -tshar-du, they have finished eating, etc., are of course often used.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future; thus, ng^{π} dung-ghi-yin, I shall beat. Common suffixes are yong and gyu-yin, $gyu-y\ddot{o}$, etc.; thus, shu-yong, I shall say; nang-la do-gyu-yin, I will go home.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative. The imperative base of the classical dialect is often preserved; thus, do-wa, to go; song, go: yong-wa, to come; shok, come: khyak-pa, to carry; khyok, carry: tak-pa, to tie; tok, tie, etc.

Common suffixes are *chik* or *shik*, *tang*, and the more polite *ro*, *ro-chik*, or *roch*, *ro-nang*, *ro-dzö*, *nang-chi*, etc. Thus, *nong-shik*, give; *lam di ten-ro-dzö*, please show the way. *Ro* is the classical *grogs*, help. The literal meaning of the last example is accordingly 'way this show-help-make.'

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Verbal nouns and participles.—The various tenses are in reality verbal nouns. The most common verbal noun is, however, formed by adding pa or, if the base in classical Tibetan ends in a vowel or in r and l, wa; thus, jhye-pa, to do; do-wa, to go. Such forms are often used as finite tenses; thus, $sh\ddot{u}-pa$, he said. In connexion with case suffixes and postpositions they are used in order to form various kinds of adverbial clauses, infinitives, etc.; thus, ser-war, saying-for, in order to say; $ny\ddot{e}-pa$ $ch\ddot{a}-p\ddot{a}$, sin doing-by, because I have sinned. They are moreover used as verbal and relative participles. In this sense another form ending in $kh\ddot{a}n$ is, however, also used. When the participle ending in pa or wa precedes a qualified noun it is put in the genitive; thus, $ng\ddot{a}$ thop-pai nor-k $\ddot{a}l$, me-by getting-of property-share, the share of the property which I shall get; mi-po nga-la dung-kh $\ddot{a}n$ dhe, man me-to striking that, the man who struck me. The participle is also used when the interrogative pronoun is applied as a kind of relative; thus, nga-la gang $y\ddot{o}$ -pa tham-ch \ddot{a} $khy\ddot{o}$ rang-ghi yin, me-to what being, all thine is.

A verbal noun, which is commonly used as an infinitive of purpose, is formed by adding gyu; thus, sa-gyu, to eat.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding case suffixes to the base or by means of special suffixes such as de and te, ching and shing; thus, gang-la ser-na, 'why?' saying-in, if you ask why, because; lang-nā, arising-from, having arisen; song-te, having gone; cho-ching, doing; sa-shing, eating, etc.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi or ma. In compound forms it precedes the last part of the compound. Mi is used with the present and future tenses; ma with the past tenses and the imperative; thus, mi $\bar{o}so$, I am not worthy; sa-mi-yong, I shall not eat; khye- $ky\bar{i}$ ma nang, you did not give; ma shok, don't come. It should be noted that the simple base is often used in the negative imperative even when the positive imperative differs; thus, ma yong, not ma shok, don't come.

Interrogative particle.—The interrogative particle is am, or usually simply a, before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, lep-jhung-nga, has he arrived?

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned under the head of authorities in the general introduction to the Tibetan language and to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. The latter is given in Tibetan characters and in transliteration. The Tibetan text represents the literary language, and not the colloquial speech of the people. It is written in the usual way, so that the spelling of the single words agrees with the form they assume in classical Tibetan. The transliterated text printed in ordinary type is a literal rendering of the Tibetan character. A second transliteration has been added in italics. It is a phonetical rendering of the text as pronounced by Lhasa people.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases, based on the hand-books of Messrs. Sandberg and Henderson, will be found on pp. 140 and ff.

[No. 7.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, 1899.)

(STATE SIKKIM.)

भ्रा बिमाया या माक्रेश स्त्रियारेटा। रेप्तमा यस छटाया रेक्षा रहामी याया बुक्षाया। रहे लय. दश. ब्रेंच.तपं. ब्रेंच.संत. ट.ल. चार्डूट. खेच । व्रिंश. रट.ची. ब्रेंच. टे. रेचील. चर्चोश.शू.। टे.वेश. बिची. भट,जू. भ. जूर्य,त्तर. यी. क्ष्टायश. बुंट्र. वशशाक्ष्य. तर्झेश.बंश. लीज. वची.हट. हुची.टे. ह्यूट. यः र्टाः हुरः श्रुरियः प्रथमः हुर्दः हुरः ब्र्टामः क्रिश्चामः पर्टाह्रः। अपः हुर्थः हुर्दः वसस्वर्थः क्रिक्सिया वर्द्दाः क्रियः द्वारा ध्रायः देशः क्षायोः क्षेत्रायः क्षेत्रायः विश्वायः विश्वायः विश्वायः विश्वायः मि श्रीमान्य स्था स्था देवे. मूम श्री हिना दम दर्मेन्यान्य स्था पश्चाम दम देश हिन समाय हैंड हिम चित्रः चर्न्दर्। देरः मि समाससः अत्रदेः मिरसुसः णुदः रद्योः मेरिसः तम्प्रासः तिन्दरः तिर्देनः णुदः क्षा शिक्षा मिरा प्रिया का क्षेत्राहरी है। देश क्षि देश ह्या प्रमुखायर प्रमुक्त हैराया। दर्वे अवसी ह्या स् भटार्ज़ रे.रेबोला वचरार्ची लूरेता थ.चरी रे. बर. चर्चार्ची लटा लूरे.पी. टार्टी पर्टरा हुंबोश.तथा कु.मू.। ८. ८. प्रदशक्षा स्पराणी. वैरानी बूरा हो. प्रिराण बि. सूरा। रप्र. स्पर. रश. रश.श्रास्तर. २८. हिर्मी, वैस्ते, केशन, वेशन, लूबा रहिर्मी, वे हिर्मी, वे हरवर, हा द्राना हर्मी, म्राया विना नदा परायर अर्ह्निर हेमा। देवशा मिं यदश हे रदामी अरणी दुरानु श्रींटार्टें। पेर्व मिट, मिर् रे.वट, धमोन्ट्रटाता, लूरे.तपुं, कु. मि.पुं, लय.ग्रेश, मि. शर्ब्रहाई, श्रेटायड्र.थश, चर्चैमाश्चर, रेपु. सर्वीतायमा पर्विरानु. मूर्या, पिरायश्चीता सूर्। नेत्यमा विद्या प्रियामा विद्यासा। एपु. स्पना दशा विद्या स्रोहत. देट. डिट्र.की. श्रेशंतर. केशंतर. वेशंतश्च टे. ही करे. ट. डिट्र.की. वी. ड्रेंट्रवर. क्षु. तुंशः क्षा द्व. मेर. लयमुक्ष मेल्मेज्य. क्षक्ष त. मिश्रदक्ष ता र.मूक्ष. मैक्षिक मेर्बेक प्रकार स्थार प्रदेर. पिर.कुर्चा, मूर्जा, मोलूमाश्चाक्षानुमा, लग्नाराज, शूर.मोर्चेंग, मोठुमा, मैंश, मिटाराज, झेश, लट, धुर्य.ठुमा। देवंश ट.ष्ट्र, चंबुट. श्रुदेत्, चेट्टू. चंटाय. इंट्ये टंटु. चे पट्टे. प्रेवंश. श्रेंट. चंड्याता तूर्य क्रिंरप्रस महेराय ध्रेषा रेप्स रेप्स हेप्स क्रेरिया क्रेरिया विमास हो।

[No. 7.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY, TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

CENTRAL DIALECT.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Colonel Waddell, 1899.) (STATE SIKKIM.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

$m{\mathit{M}i}$ sh	$egin{array}{ll} { m ig-la} & { m bu} \\ { m i} k\hbox{-} la & pu \\ { m ne-to} & { m sons} \end{array}$	v	yod-pa-r <i>yö-pa-r</i> were.	re. Te-	dag-las dak-lä em-from	chhung- chhung- younger		rang-gi rung-gi own
pha-la sh	-	'nga-i	_ ,	as thob-pa gä thop-p e-by receiving	a-i non	·-kal n		ong-zhig.' o sy-shik.' give.'
Khos rang $Kh\ddot{o}$ rang $Him-by$ own	-gi nor	de-dag-l te-dak-l them-to	a gö-sö	Te-n	$\ddot{ar{a}}$ shak	9	·po ma	lon-par lön-par passing-on
bu chhun pu chhun son young	•	nor nor roperty	thams-cha tham-cha all		$n\ddot{d}$ y		nag-ring nak-ring far	zhig-tu shik-tu one-to
song-ba-dang song-wa-tang going-when	g ter	pyod-pa chö-pa behaviour	ngan-pa ngän-pa evil	- ,	_	<u>ts</u> hang <u>ts</u> hang	ma ch	nud-zos-la hü-zö-la wasting-in
btang-ngo. tang-ngo. gave.	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{Yang} \ \mathbf{Yang} \ \mathbf{And} \end{aligned}$	khos <i>khö</i> him-by		nams-chad tham-ch i	chhud-ze chhü-ze wasting	ö-la te	tang- <u>ts</u> har a <i>ng-<u>ts</u>har-</i> giving-finish	wa-tang
yul de-la yul te-la country that-in	mu-ge	chhen-p	0	byung-bas chung-wä arising	kho to	gs-par k-par ngry-be-to	'agyur-ro. <i>gyur-rō</i> . became.	Kho <i>Kho</i> ^{He}
$song$ - $n\ddot{a}$	yul dei yul te- untry that-	i tong	-mi sh	ik $tang$	'agrogs-1 tok-no	i a	lad-pa-dan lä-pa-tang staying-when	_
kho phag-1 kho phak-1 him swine	pa <u>ts</u> ho- feed-	ru shi	ng-kha-la ng-kha-la l-direction-to	$tang$ - $ngar{o}$. seat.		kho	phag-pas phak-pä swine-by	za-ba-i sa-wa-i
0 0		ang-gi ang-gi own	$egin{aligned} & ext{grod-pa} \ & ext{t\"o-pa} \ & ext{belly} \end{aligned}$	'agrang-ba dang-war fill-to		kyang		us-kyang ü-kyang

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kho-la \mathbf{ma} ster-ro. De-nas kho dran sos-par 'agyur-te zer-pa, 'nga-i Te- $n\ddot{ar{a}}$ kho-la khomater-rō. tän sö-par gyur-te ser-wa, `nga-ihim-to not Thereafter gave. he memory restoring-to become-having said, 'my de-dag-la yab-kyi gla-pa bza-rgyu mang-po yod-pa ma-zad-de, phar yap-kyi la-pa te-dak-lamang-po $s\bar{a}$ -gyuyö-pa ma-zä-de, phar father-of hirelings many them-to eating-for is aside not-only, zag-rgyu yang yod-kyi nga-ni 'adir ltogs-pas chhi-bo. Da langs-nas nga zak-gyuyang yö-kyi dirnga-ni tok- $p\ddot{a}$ chhi-wo. Tangalang-nä laying-for also being Ι here hunger-by die. Now arisen-having yab-kyi drung-du song-ste khong-la zhu-yong, "nga-i yab, ngas nam-mkha yap-kyi tung-du song-tekhong-la shu-yong, "naa-i $ng\ddot{a}$ yap, nam-kha presence-to father-of him-to going say-will, "my father, me-by heaven dang khyed-kyi drung-du nyes-pa byas-pa-yin. Da-phyin-chhad nga tang khye-kyi tung-du nyē-pa chā-pa-yin. Ta-chhin-chhä ngaand you-of presence-in sin Henceforward I khved-kvi bu zer-bar $_{
m mi}$ os-pas khyed-kyi dang nga gla-pa zhig khye-kyi puser-war mi \ddot{o} - $p\ddot{a}$ khye-kyi nga la-pu shiktang saying-for your son not worthy-being Ι your servant with one mdzod-chig." 'adra-bar De-nas kho langs-te rang-gi yab-kyi drung-du dzö-chik." da-war Te- $n\ddot{a}$ kholang-te rang-gi yap-kyi tung-du make." like-to-be Thereafter arisen-having he own father-of presence-to kho song-ngo. On-kyang da-rung thag-ring-la yod-pa-i <u>ts</u>he kho-i Ön-kyang thak-ring-la song-ngō. khota-rung yö-pa-i tshekho-i But he still distance-at went. being-of time his yab-kyis kho mthong-ste snying-brtse-nas brgvugs-shing dei mgul-nas khothong-te yap-kyī nying-tse-nä gyuk-shing te-i $g\ddot{u}l$ - $n\ddot{d}$ seen-having father-by him pitied-having running his neck-by 'akhyud-de kho-la kha-bskyal-lo. De-nas bus khong-la zhus-pa, 'nga-i khyü-de kho-lakha-kyäl-lō. Te-nä $p\ddot{u}$ khong-la $sh\ddot{u}$ -pa, nga-iembraced-having him-to Thereafter son-by him-to said. 'my khved-kyi ngas nam-mkha dang yab, spyan-sngar nyes-pa byas-pas ngä nam-khā tangkhye-kyi chän-ngar $ch\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{a}$ yap, nyē-pa me-by heaven and you-of eyesight-in father, sin doing-by da-phyin-chhad nga khyed-kyi bu zer-bar os-so.' On-kyang yab-kyis ta-chhin-chhä ngakhye-kyi ö-sō.' puser-war miÖn-kyang yap-kyi henceforth 1 your worthy-am. \mathbf{But} saying-for not father-by gyog-po-rnams-la gsungs-pa, 'da kun-las bzang-po 'adir gos khur-shog. $g\ddot{\tilde{o}}$ yok-po-nam-la takün-lä dirsung-wa, zang-po khur-sho, servants-to said, cloth all-from good here bring, lag-pa-la sor-gdub gyogs-shig; gchig rgyus, rkang-pa-la kho-la lham yang lak-pa-la sor-dup chikyok-shik; gyü, kang-pa-la kho-la lhamyang put-on; hand-on ring one put, ${f f}{\it eet}{\mbox{-}{\it on}}$ him-to shoes also De-nas nga-tsho za-zhing skon-chig. skyid-po byed-do. "Gang-la?" kön-chik. Te- $n\bar{a}$ nga-<u>ts</u>ho sa-shing kyi-po che-dō. "Kang-la?" Then we eating merry make. " Why?" put.

vin.'

brnyed-pa

stor-nas,

gsos-pa-yin;

slar

'adi

bu

nga-i

zer-na.

shi-nas,

tor-nä. shi-nä, sö-pa-yin; nye-pa yin. pudinga-iser-na, alive-is; lost-having-been, found is.' died-having, again this saying-in, my skyid-po byed-pa-la zhugs-so. de-dag De-nas che-pa-la shuk-sō. Te-nä te-dak kyi-po they merry make-to began. Then zhing-kha-la yod-pa-yin. Kho khong-gi bu rgan-pa Dei tshe Kho shing-kha-la yö-pa-yin. khong-gi gän-pa Te-i tshepuelder field-in He That-of his son was. time gtong-ba khang-pa dang nve-bar bslebs-tsa-na sgra-snyan dang log-yongs-nas da-nyän khang-pa tang nye-war lep-tsa-na tong-wa tang lok-yong-nä nearness-into arriving-on harp sounding back-come-having house to and Khos 'de-i thos-so. zhig bos-nas. don gang gar-byed-pa gyog-po `te-ithö-so. Khö shikbö-nä, kar-che-pa yok-po tön kang called-having, 'that-of meaning what heard. Him-by servant one dancing 'khyod-kyi log-bslebs-song. vin? 'adris-pa-dang khos zer-pa, nu-bo yin? $kh\ddot{o}$ 'khyö-kyi lok-lep-song. ti-pa-tang ser-wa, nu-wo asking-when him-by younger-brother back-arrived. is?' said, 'your khams-bde-bar 'abyor-ba-i btang-ba-vin. Yab-kyis kho phyir mgron zhig $Yap-ky\bar{\iota}$ kho kham-de-war jhor-wa-i chhirdön shiktang-wa-yin.' health-good-in finding-of gave.' Father-by him sake-for feast one Der kho khros-nas nang-du 'agro-bar ma dga-o. Dei phyir pha $g\ddot{a}$ -o. Te-ichhir Ter khothö-nä nang-du do-war pha ma sake-for Then he angry-having-become inside going-for not wished. That-of phyi-rol-tu shog-chig,' ongs-nas tshig snyan-pos, 'nang-la smras-pa-dang chhi-rol-tu ong-nä tshiksho-chik, mrä-pa-tang nyän-pö, 'nang-la come-having words pleasant-with, 'inside saying-on outside go,' zhus-pa, 'adi-tsam-kyi bar-du khos pha-la 'gzigs-chig, lo mang-po ngas par-du $kh\ddot{o}$ pha-la shü-pa, 'zī-chik, $ng\ddot{a}$ lomang-po di-tsam-kyi till father-to said, ·lo, me-by many this-much-of him-by vears khyed-kyi bka-las 'agal-bar gyog byas-te khyed-kyi nam-yang ma gal-war chä-te uok khye-kyi $k\bar{a}$ - $l\ddot{a}$ nam-yang makhye-kyi transgressing-for your word-from work done-having your ever-even notphyir khyed-kyis nga-i byed-pa-i grogs-po-rnams dang skyid-po byed kyang, khye-kyī kyang, che-pa-i chhir nga-i tok-po-nam tang kyi-po chefriends with making-of sake-for you-by even. my merry did chhung-ba khyod-kyi $\mathbf{b}\mathbf{u}$ zhig On-kyang nga-la ra-gu kyang ma gnang. khyö-kyi chhung-wa pushikkyang On-kyang nga-la ra-gu manang. younger even gave. But me-to log-yongs-pa smad-'atshong-ma-rnams khyed-kyi zos-nas 'adi dang nor $z\ddot{\ddot{o}}$ - $n\ddot{\ddot{a}}$ lok-yong-pa mä-<u>ts</u>hong-ma-nam tangkhye-kyi nor diback-coming harlots property eaten-having with your this Der yab-kyis khyed-kyis btang-ngo.' de-la mgron zhig tsam-gyis Dēr yap-kyī khye-kyī te-la dön 8hik tang-ngō.' tsam-gyī father-by Then gave.' you-by him-to least as-soon-as M VOL. III, PART I.

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kho-la kho-la him-to	gsungs-pa	,	kh y od-: khyö-n		s-rgyun-du ä- <i>gyün-du</i> always	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{nga} \\ \mathbf{me} \end{aligned}$		$egin{aligned} \mathbf{mnyam-du} \ \mathbf{nyam-du} \ \mathbf{together} \end{aligned}$
$egin{aligned} & ext{sdod-pas} \ & ext{d\"o-} p \ddot{ar{a}} \ & ext{being} \end{aligned}$	•	gang yod- khang yö-p what bein	a the	ns-chad am-chä	khyod-rang khyö-rang yours	•	yin. 2	Da khyod-k yi Ta khyö-kyi Now your
nu-bo <i>nu-wo</i> younger-bro	di	shi-nas, $shi-n\ddot{a}$, died-having,	slar lar again	gsos-pa- sö-pa-y	vin; tor-	nä,	brnyed nye-p found	a yin-pä,
nga- <u>ts</u> ho nga- <u>ts</u> ho we		byed-par che-par making-tor	os-pa Ö-pa proper	yin.' yin.' is.'				

SPITI DIALECT.

The district of Spiti consists of the valleys of the Spiti and Pin Rivers and of a glacier region belonging to the western Himalaya system. It stretches southwards like a wedge between Lahul in the north-west and Kanawar in the south-east. The prevailing language over the whole of the district is Tibetan.

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 3,548. A list of Standard Words and Phrases in the Spiti dialect has been forwarded from Kangra. I have corrected it after the list of Spiti words printed in Mr. Jaeschke's Tibetan Dictionary. The list and the dictionary are the only sources of the remarks on the grammar of the Spiti dialect which follow.

AUTHORITY-

JÄSCHKE, H. A.,—A Tibetan-English Dictionary with special reference to the prevailing dialects. To which is added an English-Tibetan Vocabulary. London, 1881, pp. xvi and ff.

The Spiti dialect is a form of Central Tibetan. In several forms it agrees with Ladakhī and connected forms of speech. In the most characteristic feature, however, viz., in the use of tones, it marches with Central Tibetan.

Phonology.—The vowels are the same as in classical Tibetan. A-i is pronounced as \ddot{a} ; thus, a- $ph\ddot{a}$, of the father; de- $n\ddot{a}$, from there. It is of no consequence for this change whether the i is original or has been derived from an s. In oi, on the other hand, o and i are pronounced distinctly; thus, khoi, his.

Initial soft consonants which are not preceded by a prefix in classical Tibetan, are pronounced with a strong aspiration. In the list of words, however, the aspiration has not been marked. Thus, ghang, classical gang, which? dhud-pa, classical dud-pa, smoke; bhu-mo, classical bu-mo, daughter, and so forth. Such words are pronounced in the deep tone. The same is the case with words beginning with z and zh, which sounds have been changed to s and sh respectively. Thus, san, classical zan, food; shag, classical zhag, day.

Final g and d are left unchanged; thus, chig, one; dug, six; mig, eye; gyad, eight; khyod, thou, and so forth. There is, however, a tendency to drop them in certain positions. Thus, ba-ma, classical bag-ma, bride; khyoi and khyod-ki, classical khyod-kyis, by thee, and so forth.

Final s is changed to i, or, if preceded by a consonant, dropped. Thus, $r\bar{i}$, classical ris, quarter; $chi sh\bar{e}$, classical chi shes, who knows? perhaps; dhui, classical dus, season, time; $gh\bar{o}$, classical gos, cloth; $n\bar{a}$, classical nas, from; nam, classical rnams, many, and so forth. Gs is, however, sometimes retained, and bs becomes u; thus, ra-rigs-nam, goats; chhiu, classical chhibs, horse; $sh\bar{u}$, classical shubs, case, and so forth.

B between vowels is usually pronounced as w; thus, sa-wa, classical za-ba, to eat; shi-wa, classical shi-ba, to die. Compare, however, chha-a, going; kho-ba, they.

Compound consonants are simplified in various ways. Gutturals before y are retained, but the following y is dropped if it precedes an i; thus, ghyon-pa, classical gyon-pa, to put on, to wear; ki and gi, the suffix of the genitive; khi, classical khyi, dog. Compare, however, chhong-ba, classical a-khyong-ba, to bring.

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Labials and y become palatals. Thus, chhed, classical phyed, half; ja, classical bya, bird.

An r coalesces with a preceding letter to a cerebral; thus, tad-pa, classical krad-pa, leather; thon-pa, classical khron-pa, a spring; thi, classical gri, knife; thon-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; thu-ghu, classical phru-gu, child. Sr becomes shr; thus, shring-mo, sister.

Zl becomes d in da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

In other cases the first component of compound consonants is dropped. Thus, ba-lang, classical ba-glang, cow; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; ta, classical rta, horse; dzi-o, classical rdzi-bo, a shepherd; che, classical lche, tongue; kar-ma, classical skar-ma, star; dod, classical sdod, sit; na, classical sna, nose; Pi-ti, classical Spi-ti, name of a district; chig, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; kar-po, classical dkar-po, white; ngul, classical dngul, silver; chu, classical bchu, ten; shi, classical bzhi, four; go, classical mgo, head; dun-nä, classical mdun-nas, before, and so forth.

Note also sha and ta, classical skra, hair; teu, classical spreu, monkey; dang-bu, classical sbrang-bu, fly; chod-ba, classical spyod-pa, to do; zhar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, name of a tree; nyon-pa, classical smyon-pa, insane; ug, classical dbugs, breath, and so forth.

Tones and accents are the same as in the Central Dialect. The difference between low-toned aspirates derived from old uncompound soft consonants and high-toned aspirates derived from old soft consonants with a prefix, is more marked than in other dialects.

Inflexional system.—The inflexional system in most characteristics agrees with classical Tibetan. I shall only draw attention to some few features in which it differs.

The prefix a is used in words such as a-pha, father; a-ma, mother; a-cho, brother; a-khu, uncle, and so forth.

The particle of comparison is sang as in Ladakhī; thus, khoi a-cho khoi a-chi sang thon-po dug, his brother is taller than his sister.

The pronoun nga, I, is apparently nasalized; thus, $ng\tilde{a}$, I; $ng\tilde{a}$, my. The plural is nga-zha, or, perhaps, nga-sha. Compare Ladakhī. 'Thou' is khyud, or khyo, genitive khyoi and khycd-ki, plural khyo-zha. Note also kho-ba, they. The actual pronunciation of the latter word is perhaps kho-wa.

With regard to verbs we may note that, according to the list of words, there seems to be a tendency to distinguish the first from the second and third persons. It is, however, not possible to state whether this is really a feature of the spoken dialect.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases yin, yod, and duy; past yoddin or dugpin.

The first person of the present tense is, according to the list, formed by adding yod, am, to a participle ending in a, before which a final consonant is doubled. Thus, chha-a yod, I go; gyab-ba yod, I strike. The same form is, however, also used in the third person; thus, dad-da yod, he lives.

The second and third persons are formed by adding dug, or, after vowels, rug. to the base; thus, gyah-dug, strikest; <u>tsho-rug</u>, he is grazing.

In the past tense we find forms such as gyab-ban, I struck, he struck; gyab-song, thou struckest; song-ban, went.

The future is formed by adding in, i.e. yin, as in Ladakhi; thus, gyab-in, will strike. Yin-do, shall be, literally means 'I may be,' as in Ladakhi.

In the imperative we may note forms such as len-tong, take; ching-tong, bind, and so forth.

The usual verbal noun is formed as in Ladakhī. Thus, chha-che, to be; gyab-che, to beat. Note also the participle song-khan, gone; compare Purik and Ladakhī.

The preceding remarks are far from being exhaustive. It is, however, hoped that they are sufficient to show how the Spiti dialect must be classified.

A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 142 and ff. below.

NYAMKAT.

A Tibetan dialect is spoken along the upper course of the Satlej in Kanawar. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 1,544. The name of the dialect is Nyamkat.

Nyam-kat, classical mnyam-skad, means 'the Nyam speech,' lit. 'the language of the equals.' The dialect is also known under other names such as Bad-kat, i.e., Bod-skad, Tibetan; Sangyas, i.e., probably sangs-rgyas, the (dialect of the) Buddhists. The speakers are sometimes also called Jad as in Tehri Garhwal.

Nyamkat is closely related to Spiti and Jad. There are apparently very few traces of an influence exercised by Kanāwarī. I may mention the form ke-song, he gave to us; compare tang-song, he gave to them.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Nyamkat dialect will be printed below. It has been forwarded in Dēvanāgarī and transliteration. I have only printed the latter text. The original does not distinguish between ch and \underline{ts} , j and \underline{dz} , chh and $\underline{ts}h$, j, z, and zh, respectively. I have, however, distinguished between those various sounds as in the Tibetan of Spiti and Garhwal.

Phonology.—The phonetical system is in most characteristics the same as in Spiti and Tehri Garhwal.

A strong aspiration of soft consonants can be inferred from spellings such as de-ne and te-ne, then; shang, classical zhag, day; za-ja, to eat, but soi-ne, eating, and so forth. Final soft consonants are hardened; thus, thak-ring, far; dot-pa, belly; thop, to be found.

A final s is dropped, and a preceding vowel is lengthened; thus, $khang-zhing-n\bar{a}$, from the property; $n\bar{\imath}$, i.e., probably $ny\bar{\imath}$, classical gnyis, two; $d\bar{u}$, classical dus, season; $g\bar{o}$, classical dgos, it is necessary; tuk, classical btugs, kissed. In some cases, however, s is changed to i as in Spiti. Compare soi-ne, classical zos-nas, having eaten; goi-pe, classical bgos-pai, dividing.

The suffix pa, ba takes the form wa after vowels, ng, r, and probably also after l; thus, shi-sha-wa, died; song-wa, went; zer-wa, said. Instead of wa we sometimes find a; thus, diya, asked; yong-a, came. $L\bar{a}$ -po, a servant, therefore corresponds to Tibetan las-pa, and not to gla-bo.

Double consonants are simplified in the usual way.

By becomes ch; thus, chuk, classical byugs, he patted. Y is dropped after consonants before e and i; thus, kher, classical akhyer, bring; phit-ka, classical phyed-ka, half; phi-la, classical phyi-la, after. In other cases y is retained after gutturals; thus, gyuk, classical rgyuk, run.

Compound consonants containing an r as the last component are changed to cerebrals. Thus, dang-wa, classical 'agrang-ba, to satisfy; di-ya, classical 'adri-ba, asked; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, a son.

In other compounds the first consonant is dropped; thus, kon-chok, classical dkon-mchhog, God; tuk, classical gtugs, kissed; goi-pe, classical bgos-pas, dividing; dung. classical rdung, beat; dan-la, classical ldan-la, with; lang-wa, classical slang-ba, to rise; kat, classical skad, word, and so forth.

Tones and accents are probably the same as in Spiti.

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Inflexional system.—The suffix of the case of the agent is su as in Jad; thus, aba-su, by the father. The other cases are formed as in classical Tibetan.

'Thou' is khe-rang and khyot-rang.

With regard to verbs we may note the verb substantive hin, past hat, corresponding to classical Tibetan yin, yod, respectively.

The usual forms of the past add song or pu, wa; thus, zer-song, said; zer-wa, said. Forms such as tang-we, gavest, belong to the participle ending in wa. Compare kher-we, having brought; goi-pe, having divided. poi, went, stands for pa00, i.e. pa100.

In the imperative suffixes such as go, shok, chuk are usually added. Thus, tang-go, to give is necessary, give; khur-shok, bring; cho-chuk, make, and so forth. Chuk is a causal termination.

The usual form of the verbal noun ends in ja; thus, za-ja, to eat.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows.

[No. 8.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

NYAMKAT DIALECT.

(BASHAHR.)

Michik thu-gu Chhungã-su nī hat. aba-la zer-song, Man one(-of)sons twowere. Young-by father-to said, 'ngã-rang-la, aba, ya khe-rang-gi khang-zhing-nā nga-rang-la phit-ka 0 father. "me-to, your house-field-from half me-totang-gō.' Aba-su thu-gu ni-la khang-zhing goi-pe tang-song. Shang-pa give.' Father-by sons two-to property dividing Days gave. phi-la thu-gu chhunga-su kho-rang-gi $n\bar{i}$ khang-zhing sum jamyo cha-song. after twothreeyoung-by hisproperty together made. Thak-ring vul-la kho-rang-gi zhing-kha najung-la Te-ne do-ne tang-song. Far country-to going hisproperty Then girls-to gave. kho zbing-kha za-thung-zin-song, de-ne de vul-la nā-met sal. eat-drink-finished, hisproperty then that country-in famine spread. song. Khorang nor-me-char-gok De yul-la $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ chig-gi lā-po Hepoor became. That country-in man one-of service Kho-rang-su tsho-la che-song. zhing phak tang-song. De-ne kho-rang-gi did.Him-byfield swine feeding-for sent.Then hisbak-pho bat soi-ne dot-pa dang-we hin; phak-ghi kho-rang-la zhan-ma swine-of soiledhusks eating belly satisfying him-to elsethok-pe hin. De-ne kho-rang gang-tang $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ sam-la, 'ngã-rang-gi Then anything notbeing-got was. hemind-in. ' my duk. Kho-rang-la abai khang-la lā-po tsamza-ja thung-ja father-of house-in servants how-many are. Them-to eating drinking go-ting poli mang-bo duk. Ngã tokri-su darung mi-la shiyā dividing-after breadstillmen-to muchis.I hunger-from dying lang-we aba-la do-yong,' khorang-su zer-song, Ngã 'lo duk. aba, I rising father-to go-shall, him-by said, '0 father, am. shak-pa khe-rang-gi dun-la kon-chok mu-la che-song. $Ng\tilde{a}$ ngã-su God withme-by thy presence-in sindid.I phocha-medo. dan-la thu-gu zer-ja Nga-rang-la khyot-rang-gi khe-rang-gi to-say able-not-am. Meyour sonyou-of with

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dan-la aba dul-song. lang-we kho-rang-gi chho.' Kho bar lā-po his father near went. likemake.' Herising servant Thu-gu thak-ring duk, thong-song; kho-rang-gi thu-gui kho-rang-gi aba-su **8010** ; hishisfather-by son-of is,Son far Kho-rang-gi jug-po chug, kha tuk-song. dul-ne song-wa, jug-jar che-song; neck patted, mouth kissed. Hismade; going went, pity khyot-gi dun-la kon-chok mu-la 'lo nga-rang-su thu-gu-su zer-song, aba, thee-of Godfather, me-by before toson-by said, Tak-sang ngã khe-rang-gi thu-gu pho-cha-medo.' zer shak-pa che-song. able-not-am. did.Now your 80n to-say sin'ga-mo ga-mo reshat kho-rang-la gon-we thok-po-la zer-wa, Aba-su clothservants-to `goodhim-to said,goodputting-on Father-by khur-shok; lak-pa-la dugū-jukū-la (i.e., dzug-gu-la) sur-tup, da-rung kang-ba-la andbring; hand-on finger-on ring, feet-on kapsha gon-we khur-shok. Ngã-rang-la za-ja thung-ja tong, da-rung putting-on Us-to eating drinking andshoes bring. give, sim-sol cho-chuk. Dar-ling nga-rang-gi thu-gu shi-song, tak-sang sanyo died, now alive merry make. This-for m_{y} sonyong-song; nga-rang-la sim-sol cho-chuk.' came: us-to merry make.'

kho-rang-gi thu-gu chheya Te-ne kho-rang zhing-kha-la hat. Then heThen hissonelderfield-in was. khang-bai ne-mo yong-song, phit-la lu tse go-song. Kho-rang-su house-of understood. Him-bynear came, outside singing dancing hin?' yok-po-la kat-gyap-song da-rung kho-rang 'chi tamdi-ya, is? servant-to calledand 'what matterhimasked, Kho-rang-su kho-rang-la zer-wa, 'khyo-rang-gi yong-a hin; no younger-brother Him-by him-to said. come is; ' thy khyo-rang-gi tang-song. aba-su kho-rang-gi za-ja thung-ja phi-la thy father-by drinking gave. hissake-for eating na-chha-met-pa Chi-la, sai-song, kho lok-ne yong-song.' Kho tshik-pa Why, wordate, heillness-not-being returning Hecame. nang-la thon-song; $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ do-ser-wa. phit-la De-ne kho-rang-gi aba insidego-would. Therefore outside came; hisfatherkho-rang-la 'lo mang-bo sol-chan che-pe, kho-rang-su aba-la zer-wa, him-to many 'years entreaty said, doing, him-by father-to khe-rang-gi serphat. lā-po che-pa, nga-rang-su khe-rang-gi medtam-la transgressed. your service doing, notme-by your word Khe-rang-su nam-shi-bar-du nga-rang-la tang-song, ra-bo $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ chik chhung Thee-by gavest, notever-even goatme-to smalloneVOL. III, PART I.

chuk-hin-am, nga-rang-gi shak-po mu-la rang-thak che-pa. Daji kho thu-gu friends withfeast to-make. But that wherefore, my chhunga yong-wa; kho-rang-su nor tshang-ma na-jung-la tang-wa-zin-song, allharlots-toto-give-finished, young came; him-by property khe-rang-su kho-la za-ja thung-ja tang-we.' Kho-rang-su zer-wa, you-by him-to eating drinking gavest.' Him-by said, nga-rang-dang; \mathbf{chi} hin-na nga-rang-gi nga-rang-gi thu-gu, khyot da-rung myson, thou me-with; and what is my nang-la khe-rang-la tshang-ma hin. Nga-rang-la do-chuk thob-ong, kho house-in will-be-found, that thee-to allTs-to i8. gokham-zang; khe-rang-gi shi-sha-wa, notak-sang sanyo doi; your merry; younger-brother dead-was, alivenowwent; tor song-wa hin, tak-sang thop-song. lostgone now found-was.' was,

JAD DIALECT.

The Bhōṭiās of Nilang in Tehri Garhwal are called Jads. They have originally come from Tibet. According to the District Gazetteer, they have now a large admixture of Garhwali and Bashahri blood, due in a great measure to the former practice of purchasing slave girls from the poorer Garhwalis.

The Jads are the carriers and brokers with Tibet, like the Bhōtiās of the Kumaon valleys. In the winter they migrate southwards to Dhunda on the Bhagirathi some seven or eight marches below Nilang.

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 106. At the last Census of 1901, there were 204 speakers of Bhōṭiā in Tehri Garhwal.

The Jad dialect is closely related to the Tibetan spoken in Spiti. The materials available are not sufficient for settling all questions of detail. The general character of the dialect will, however, be easily recognized.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Jad dialect will be printed below. It has been forwarded in the Tibetan character usual in the district, and in transliteration. The transliteration in one or two places differs from the original. I have not corrected such passages, because the transliteration apparently presents the better text. On the other hand, I have silently corrected the very numerous blunders in transliterating single words.

Phonology.—The phonetic system is, mainly, the same as in Spiti.

Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a very strong aspiration. The consequence is that they usually appear as hard letters. Thus, pa, cow; shu-ba, said; sin-ba, to be exhausted, and so forth.

Final g is apparently pronounced as k; thus, duk, is; mik, eye.

Final d is sometimes dropped, and sometimes pronounced as t. Thus, to-pa, classical Tibetan grod-pa, belly; do-cha, classical sdod-ches, to sit; yot, classical yod, is.

Final s is always dropped. Thus, gyal-kham, classical rgyal-khams, country; nyi, classical gnyis, two; nam, classical rnams, all. Nas becomes ne, i.e., nä, thus, di-ne, thereafter.

Double consonants are simplified, usually so that the first one is dropped. Thus, nyi, classical gnyis, two; son, classical gson, alive; nang, classical gnang, give; gu, classical dgu, nine; go, classical bgod, divide; shi, classical bzhi, four; dun, classical bdun, seven; ka, classical bka, word; ta, classical rta, horse; dung, classical rdung, beat; go, classical mgo, head; gya-tsho, classical rgya-mtsho, sea; nga, classical lnga, five; che, classical lche, tongue; chak, classical lchags, iron; kon, classical skon, put; kal, classical skal, share; mra, classical smra, say, and so forth.

Labials conjunct with y become palatals. Thus, cha-ba, classical bya-ba, deeds; chhi-la, classical phyi-la, outside, and so forth. In a similar way we often find ch, j, chh instead of ky, khy, gy, respectively. Thus, sa-ju, classical za-rgyu, eating for; chho-chi, classical khyod-kyi, thy. This latter change, however, does not appear to be more than a tendency. Compare gyal-sa, country; gyet, eat; yap-ki, of the father, and so forth.

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When the last component of a compound letter is r, the whole compound is pronounced as a cerebral. Thus, ta, classical skra, hair; do-wa, classical 'a-gro-ba, go; tu, classical gru, ship; ti, classical 'a-dri, ask; tan, I, corresponding to classical bran, slave, and so forth.

Note da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon; ul-bo, classical dbul-ba, poor.

It is not possible to state how the p and b of the verbal suffixes pa, po, ba, bo, is pronounced. The regular form after vowels is apparently w. The same is probably the case after ng, r, and l. The specimen is, however, far from being consistent.

Tones and accent are probably the same as in the Central Dialect.

Inflexional system.—The various suffixes used in the inflexion of nouns and verbs are mainly the same as in classical Tibetan. I shall only make some few remarks on characteristic points.

Nouns and pronouns.—The suffix of the case of the agent is su; thus, yab-su, by the father.

Note the use of the prefix a in words such as a-ba, father; a-ma, mother; a-cho, elder brother, and so forth. Compare Ladakhī.

The particle of comparison is apparently sang as in Ladakhi. Compare ti a-cho ting-mo sang chhungun ring-bo tuk, his brother sister a little than more tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

In addition to nga-rang, I, we also find tan, I. Tan is Tibetan bran, a slave. Note also chho-chi and chho-rang-gi, thy; khi and kho-rang-gi, his.

Verbs.—The most usual form of the past is the verbal noun ending in pa; thus, shu-ba, said. A periphrastic past is formed by adding song, went; thus, chung-song, became; nang-ba song, gave, and so forth.

In addition to the classical verbal noun ending in pa and similar suffixes, we also find such as are formed by adding a suffix corresponding to Ladakhī ches. Thus, do-cha, to sit; hong-ja, to come; tong-zha, seeing; dung-sha, beating, and so forth.

For further details the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows should be consulted. The specimen is not a good one, and it should be used with caution.

[No. 9.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

JAD DIALECT.

(STATE TEHRI GARHWAL.)

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مرسد سرمه و مد صدمدر مرا ، برد مرم فرد سد عمد المسال مع عرب معدد عد ما المد مراه مراه sugh man the may to auto, my tong. o. मिल वार न्युरण मा, नार मा मिल मिल के ना वा मार fill marzon Di Zimine guine maiogo. मित्रक्षण का ग्रिंग्या का ग्रिंग्या न्यान विकास के हैं। हुन हुन का का कार कर के का कार कर के का का का कि हैं। 5)1412 game 5, 5. Barme 29/20.41 निया न्यान एक ता जीता । । । यह व्यव पर्या की वि 一つちいるいことの、からしいの men 20 mm och 20 mm Manglightmand. Altige me grade. Jagirmen Bla minimient foragedige Canona Edid-udradul Mimo

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[No. 9.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

JAD DIALECT.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(STATE TEHRI GARHWAL.)

Mi chik-la nyi. Yang рū chung-ma yab-la shū-ba, рū And father-to Man one-to two. son younger said. sons kāl nang-gō.' Yab-su 'nga-rang-la, nor-ki pū-la yap, property-of ·me-to, give-must.Father-by father, share son-to Shag mang-bo chung-ma-su nor-ki kāl nang-ba-song. ma song, pū property-of sharegave. Days many went, young-by notnor-nam-la dū-ba, gyal-kham-la song yang tī-ru rang-gi nor-nam gathered, country-to property-all-to went and there own property-all cha-ba metar-song. Yang nor-sak-nam sin-song-ba, di khang-men squandered. Andwas-exhausted, that evildoing property gyal-sa-ru sa-ju mi duk. met-pa ul-po-ru yang nor song. property not-being country-in eating-means misery-in notwas, andwent. Yang di gyal-sa-ki michhepo chik tung-du song-ba, yang $\mathrm{m} \mathrm{i}$ Andthatcountry-of man greatbefore went, and one man chhepo-su sakhet chik-tu phak tsho-ru tang-ba-song. Yang phak sa-bi fieldgreat-by one-to swinefeeding-for sent. And swineeatenyang sak-ti rang so-na dang-ba song; phu-mā mi yang-su food-that selfeaten-if belly satisfiedwas; anyone-by strawevennottang-ba duk. Yang sem-la tong-ba chung-ba ti-tar tan-ba giving Andmind-in considerationwas-produced thus was. entering yog-po-la mang-po 'rang-gi yap-ki to mra-wa, yog-po mang-po yot; 'self-of father-of servants belly muchsaid, many are; servants-to yap-ki do-ba yot, yang rang-ni rang-ni tok-shi-la song. Tan selffather-of is, selfIgoinghunger-dying went. tung do-yong, shu-yong, "yap, kon-chhok-ki chho-rang-gi yang tan-ni andyou-of house will-go, will-say, "father, I heaven-of tung-du layok-chung, yung-song, shikten di-ru-la yang ta-ni mabefore sinner-became, came, world here-in notand now chho-rang-gi jep-yong. chik-tang рū yang di-ru Tan-la rang-gi yok-po servant one-with your Me] sonstillhere exchange-will. self-of o VOL. III, PART I.

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da-ba dzot."; Di-ne song-ba rang-gi yab-ki tung-du vong. likeappoint." This-from self-of father-of near came. went Yang kho yang sa-thak-ring-po yot-pa, yang thong-zha kho-rang-gi yap-ni seeing And he stillfar-off was, andhis father nying-je chung, vang jug-ni wok-ma-la tham-ba mang-po mang-po pity became, andrunning neck-on embraced many many tok-ma-po Pũ-su shū-ba, 'yap, tan-su kon-chhok yab-ki chung. tang kissing ensued. Son-by said. 'father. me-by heaven and father-of chho-chi pū layok chung; tshe-di tang \mathbf{ma} chung-song, yang yang stillsinner became: and $time-this \quad worthy(?)$ became. thy notson chung-song.' di Yap-rang-su kho-rang-gi vok-nam-la mra-wa, ʻ go $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ became.' servants-to thisnotFather-by own said. 'cloth lak-pa-la lak-po nyo-shok timi-la kon-shok; ti surtup yang tang goodhishand-on buy thisman-on put; andring and. kon-shok. chung-ba; pū dikang-ba-la lham Yang tan sem-la geri And I mind-in merry became; feet-on shoes put. this sonsem-chung. son-ba tor-song-ba sem-chung-ba, shi-ba yang chung; yang deadthought, andalivebecame ; lost-gone thought, and thob-chung-ba.' sem-ba-la geri mang-bo chung. Yang chung found-was.' And mind-in merry to-become muchbecame.

chhe-ba sakhet Chhi-lok gye-ba khang-ba Ti-shi pu duk-pa. nye-mo-la Then son bigfield was. Outside going house nearseba tang lulen tshor-ba. Yang yog-po chik-la ka nang-ba yang, dancing andsinging heard. Andservant one-to wordgave and, chi?' ti-ba. yang yog-po rang-su 'Tan-rang no-mo-chung (sic) di 'this what?' andservantself-by asked. My(?)brother-younger thatlep-chung-ba, chho-rang yap-su mang-bo sin-pa tang-song, kho-rang-gi has-come, your father-by much foodgave, hissem-song.' sem-la kit-po Yang sem-ba-la tshik-pa chung-ba, khang-pa-la mind-in thought.' And happy mind-to anger ensued, house-into yab lok-sem-ba. Yang chhi-la ton-ne chuk. 'To mi semso lo return-would. Andfather not outcoming to-entreat began. 'Lo years tar-na rang-gi shab-chik yin. Yang chho-rang-gi ka-la ka-shu-ba. according-to your servant Andam. your word-to obeyed. Chho-rang-su tan-rang-la ri-gu chik yang ma tang, rang-gi rok nyam You-by me-to kidoneeven notgavest, own friend withsem-pa-chi. Yang chho-chi рū lep-chung, ti-su rang-gi nor-sak-nam to-make-merry. Andyour arrived, sonhim-by own property shang-tshung-ma nyam te-ba-la tang-song, chho-rang-su khi phi-la shin-ba harlotswith joining gave, you-by hissake-for feast

'pū, chho-rang ṭan-nyam¹ yot tang-song.' Yang khong-su, lo tar; gave.' Andhim-by, 'son, me-with you are years according-to; rang-la yot-pi chho-rang-la yin. Sem-la ga-ba yin, ga-ba-chi tang-po self-to being you-to is.Mind-in to-rejoice rejoicing-of proper is, yin. Yang chho-rang-gi no-mo(sic) shik-song-ba, yang son-song; tor-song, is.Andyour brotherdead-was, andalive-came; lost-was, thop-song.' found-was.'

¹ The use of the word tan by the father, when speaking to his son, is not correct. Nga must be used instead.

GARHWAL DIALECT.

Tibetan is spoken by the Bhōṭiās of Painkhanda in Garhwal. The southern boundary of the Bhōṭiā tract consists of a line drawn from the western slope of Nanda Deir south-west to Trisul, thence north-west along the northern slopes of the Nandak peaks and along the water-shed between the Biri-Ganga and the feeders of the Dhauli to Salighat near Pana on the road between Ramni and Joshinath, whence it follows the Garur-Ganga to Pakhi. The Bhōṭiās of the Mana and Niti valleys are called Mārchas.

Tibetan is also spoken by most of the Tolchas, the inhabitants of the villages not occupied by Bhōṭiās in the Niti valley. They are of Khas origin.

The number of speakers of Tibetan in Garhwal has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 4,300. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were 1,891.

The Garhwal dialect is closely related to the form of Tibetan spoken by the Jads of Tehri Garhwal.

The materials forwarded from Garhwal for the purposes of this Survey do not appear to be trustworthy. There cannot, however be any doubt about the general character of the dialect.

Phonology.—Soft initial consonants are probably pronounced with a strong aspiration, so as to be scarcely distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds. Thus, ti, this; te, that; sa, to eat, and so on. In very many cases, however, the soft unaspirated consonant is retained, at least in writing. Thus, dug, is.

Final g and d are apparently rather faintly sounded. Compare spellings such as du, is; de, i.e., probably $d\ddot{o}$, classical Tibetan sdod, remain. Usually, however, the two sounds are preserved.

Final s is dropped. Compare nyi, classical Tibetan gnyis, two; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. As becomes e, i.e., ä; thus, te-ne, thereafter.

Zh occurs as sh, j, and s; thus, shak, classical zhag, day; ji, classical bzhi, four; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. The actual pronunciation is probably sh.

J is also often written instead of classical z. Thus, jung(-song), classical bzung, seized. Similarly j and dz, ch and ts, are not properly distinguished in the specimen.

Compound consonants are simplified. The first consonant is dropped if the last component is not a y or an r. Thus, leb, classical slebs, came; ta, classical lta, see; gon, classical sgon, put on; gal, classical sgal, a load; top, classical stob, food; de, classical sdod, remain; jim, classical gzim, sleep; kon-pa, classical dkon-pa, dear; dhu, classical bsdus, close; go, classical mgo, head; tshan, classical mtshan, might, and so forth.

A y coalesces with a preceding b or ph to ch or j; thus, chung and jung, classical byung, became; sap-ji, classical zhabs-phyi, servant. Phyi, however, also becomes phi; thus, phi-la, for the sake of.

The genitive suffix gyi, kyi, becomes chi; thus, $nam \cdot chi$, of the heaven. Khy, on the other hand, remains, or is changed to kh if an e follows. Thus, khyo and khe, thou.

Compound letters containing an r as the last component are changed to cerebrals. Thus, thuk-pa, classical 'a-khrug-pa, quarrel; do, classical 'agro, go; thu-gu, classical phru-gu, child, and so forth.

Note da-wa, classical zla-ba, month.

Tones and accents are probably the same as in other dialects of Central Tibetan.

Nouns and Pronouns.—The prefix a is used in a-pa, father.

The suffix la is very commonly used to form the case of the agent in the Parable; thus, thu-gu chhung-la apa-la ka lab, son youngest-by father-to word said, the youngest son said to his father. This use of la is perhaps due to misunderstanding by the translator.

The suffix su is used to form an ablative. Thus, tokri-su, from hunger; Jang-su, from Tibet.

With regard to pronouns we may note hago and ogo, I; nge, my, I; nga-la, by me, to me; nga-rang, we; khyo and khe, thou; kho and kho-ba, he; kho-ba-i, by him; kho-be-la, by him, to them; di-ba, they.

Verbs.—A compound present can be formed by adding dug, is, to a participle ending in khan; thus, shi-khan-dug, am dying.

Several forms are in use in the past tense. In addition to forms such as lab, thought, said; $ma\ song$, did not go; jung, became; $do\ song$, went, and so forth, we may note such as are made by adding $\underline{ts}har$ or yod to the base. Thus, $cha\ yod$, did; $tang\ yod$, sent; $cha\ tshar$, made.

The usual verbal noun ends in ja; thus, do-ja, going; $\underline{ts}ho-ja$, to feed. The conjunctive participle ends in tin, i.e. perhaps ti; thus, do-tin, having gone.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is the beginning of a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is the statement of a witness. The latter is apparently much more correct than the former.

[No. 10.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

GARHWAL DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(PAINKHANDA, GARHWAL.)

du. Chik-che-na mi-chi nyi thu-gu Kho-su thu-gu chhung-la A-certain man-of two sons were. Them-from young-by father-to lab. ʻ yo chi ka apa, jung-na nge kal-la tang-chhuk.' nor word said, father, whichproperty becomes my share-to give.' kho-ba-i kho-be-la kal-la-cha-tshar. Te-ne rang nor Mang-po shak-pa Then him-by them-to share-into-made. own property Many days $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ song, thu-gu chhung kun dum che-tin sa-ring-bo do-song. Kho-be not went, young alltogethermakingcountry-far went. There jun-ba jung-tin shak-po don-met khem-yod, rang nor-chi med-ra-che. being days uselessspent, extravagant own property-of squandered. med-ra-cha-tshar, mang-mo Kho-be-la kun te-ne tha-la kon-po jung. thenthereHim-by allsquandered-made, bigfamine fell. kopryā Kho do-tin tha-la yul-ba-la Kho-rang jung. $_{
m mi}$ chik-la became. HeHepoor going therecountry-in man one-with rang sing-la dod-ja cha-yod; kho-ba-i phak tsho-ja tang-yod. Kho-la field-to made; him-by own swineto-feed residing sent. $Him \cdot by$ phak sa-ja rang tot-pa khe-che-ja nak-sum-yod; phung-ma jan mi-duk swinefoodoionbelly to-fill wanted: grassothernot-was chhung Te-ne tang-ja. sem-la kho-be-la kho-la hago jung, Then anything to-give. mind-in him-to consciousness came, him-by 'nge apa tsam. mi-la chi-da-bu-tsang lap-song, top-ja takri father(-of) said, 'my many men-to foodhow-good breadtokri-su hago si-khan du. Ngetang-ja-vod; long-tin rang-chi apa hunger-from dying \boldsymbol{I} is-given; am.arising own-of fatherka-chha kho-la lab-yong, "yo do-ong tsa-la apa, rang-la nam-chi him-to words say-shall, go-shall" O near father, self-by heaven-of nyi-bo khyo thong dikpa cha-yod. Nge dik-pa, seba khyo-chi thu-gu your sight near sindid.sin, Iagain thyson

lap-ja ma jung. Nga-la khe-rang-chi yok-po chik chokta nga-la yang to-say not became. Meyour servantonelikealsome chi.", Te-ne kho long-tin rang apa tsa-la do-yod. Kho-rang make." Then hearising fatherown nearwent. Hering-bo-la kho-be kho thong-tin chhen nying-je; yod, apa-la kho shari far hisfather-by himseeing was, muchpity; hequicklykho-be-chi Thu-gu do, oli jung-tin jum-yod. lab-yod, ʻ yo apa, went, hisneckseizing kissed.Son said, · 0 father, nge-la nam-chi dik-pa khyo thong nyi-ba dik-pa cha-yod. Seba me-by heaven-of sinthysightnear sindid. Again khyo-chi thu-gu lap-ja $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ jung.' Kho-so apa-la rang sap-ji-la thy sonto-say notbecame.' Then father-by own servants-to lab-yod, 'kun thi-ya pu-tsang gon-ja tho-tin kho-la gon-chhuk. Kho-chi said, 'all withgoodclothtakinghim-to put-on. Hiskang-ba lak-pa-la kho-chi jugu, kap-sha gon-chhuk. Nga-rang sa-ja-su hand-on ring, hisfeet shoes put-on. Weeating khyo dalpu-chi; khe-rang-chi thu-gu shi-khan yang son-po tel; and(?)rejoice-let; you-self-of deadsoneven alivecame; tor-tin thob-song.' Kho-rang dal-pu jung-yod. having-been-lost was-found. They merry became.

[No. II.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

GARHWAL DIALECT.

SPECIMEN II.

(PAINKHANDA, GARHWAL.)

da-wa-la Jang-su lok-tin tel-khan Di dang-ma, nge dug. Tibet-from Thismonth-in beginning, coming Ireturning was. lug nye-bo dug. Ti-la tsha le bal kal-yod Gva-tha-pa ogo Hundred These-on boraxsheep mewithwere. salt woolloaded Sowanu nyi-bo Nenu Padam-Si Ringjin ti ji mi dug. Sowanu withNenu Padam-Si Ringjin these men four Mewas. tsha-kun kal-tin kher-khan Di-ba ya lug-la vod. Nga dug. $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ were. Thesealsosheep-on salt-allloading bringing were. Fivemen dosa Chhong-sa-la leb-song. Yul-la phe-tar tshamo ogo-rang tshe-la our Niti-to arrived. Village-at outside camp daydate-in <u>Ts</u>han-la de-ne kun jim-song, ti-chung phe-ka-tshan-la gur pok-song. pitched. Night-in then allslept, this-about mid night-at tentlug-gal-la chung mi-lham chok-ta jung. Lem khojam go sheep-loads-in somedream likehappened. At-once timemygo-lak phar-jung 020lug-gal-la thok-song. tsa-la Nenu go-na-su liftedlooked.Mybed-sheet sheep-loads-to near Nenu head-from yod. Ogo kha dhu-tin de-yod ta-tin yod, ti chi che-khan ta-tin remained looking was, he mouth closing was. whatdoing looking Nenu-la go-na-su go-lak phar thong-med. Kho-rang ogo yod. head-from Nenu-to bed-sheet removing seen-was-not. Hewas. kher-tshar kho yul-chhok kher-tshar. lug-gal ogo Ogo nvi-bo ji bagsminetookvillage-towards took. Menear four nyal-yod. Ogo ga-le cha-tin kho-rang-la lang-song. Te-ne ogo Sowanu Ι quietly doing himraised.slept. Then Sowanu nyi Nenu-la seba-seba song-yod. Padam-Si kho Ringjin-la, long-shok, mi Padam-Si Nenu after went. and Ringjin-to, rise. men two Yul-chi Nenu-la thiya lug-gal ogo jung-song. nyi-mo Kho-la che-yod. with lagsseized. $Village \cdot of$ near Nenu Himmade. lug-gal chi-phi-la kher-song?' 'khe-rang ti Kho-ba lab-song, di-song, took? why thesebagsHe'you said, asked,

yin. Nge 'lug-gal ogo kho-la vul-la bor-ja-la kher-yod.' Te-ne 'bags mineare. I them $village ext{-}in$ leaving-for brought.' Then thuk-pa che-jung. Te-ne dung-ja-la lang-yod. nge-la Thab-sha cha-tin-la me-with quarrelmade.Then beating-for began.Means making-by kho-la hago kho-la jum-tin yul-la kher-song. Te-ne thiya lug-gal we himseizing village-into brought. Then himwithbagsgat-po-la chung-sar. official-to handed-over.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In the beginning of this month I returned from Tibet with a hundred sheep, loaded Nenu, Padam-Si, Ringjin, and Sowanu were with me. with salt, borax, and wool. They also brought salt on their sheep. On the fifth our camp reached Niti, and we pitched our tents outside the village. When we were all asleep at mid-night I dreamt I removed the bed-cloth from my head, and I saw Nenu looking at my I remained silently looking on, to ascertain what he was about. aware of the fact that I had removed the bed-cloth from my head. He took four of my bags and went towards the village. Sowanu slept near me, and I roused him quietly. Then we followed after Nenu, and we also roused Padam-Si and Ringjin. We overtook Nenu with the bags near the village. I asked him why he had taken the bags. said, 'they are mine, and I am going to leave them in the village.' He began to quarrel with me, and to beat me. We only with difficulty succeeded in arresting him. We then brought him to the village, and handed him and the bags over to the revenueofficer.

VOL. III, PART I.

KĀGATE.

The Kāgate dialect of Tibetan is closely related to the so-called Sharpa and to the Tibetan of Sikkim. It is spoken in Eastern Nepal and in Darjeeling. We have not, however, any information about the number of speakers.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been forwarded from Darjeeling. They are the only foundation of the remarks on Kāgate which follow.

Pronunciation.—The spelling of the specimens does not correctly reflect the actual pronunciation of the dialect. It is not, however, difficult to get a general idea of the phonetic system.

The short u is often pronounced as an \ddot{u} , i.e., the sound of \ddot{u} in German 'küssen.' In such cases it is written i, and I have retained this spelling because it is possible that the sound is almost that of i in 'pin.' Compare tin, classical Tibeian bdun, seven; song and sing, the suffix of past time; su and si, who? etc. Compare also tharung, classical thag-ring, far. E is written in pe-mi, classical bud-med, woman. The letter e apparently also represents the sounds of \ddot{u} in German 'Bär' and of \ddot{v} in German 'bös'; compare ne, Lhasa dialect $n\ddot{u}$, from; te, Lhasa dialect $d\ddot{v}$, to sit, etc.

With regard to consonants it should be noted that the sounds j, dz, z, and zh are not correctly distinguished in the specimens. Compare kaze, how many; o-je, so many; pi-za, i.e., probably pi-dza, child; minji and minzi, from; do-ze, i.e., probably do-zhe, to go, etc.

Soft initials are usually hardened; thus pu, classical bu, son; dung-la and tung-la, before, etc. The intermediate form, with an aspirated hard initial, occurs in phu, son. On the other hand, hard initials are occasionally softened when preceded by vowels or nasals in compound words; thus, tham-je, classical thams-chad, all.

With regard to final consonants g is usually changed to k, and b to p; thus, chik, one; phak, swine; lep, arrive. Compare classical Tibetan gchig, phag, sleb. Final g is often also dropped. Compare mi, classical mig, eye; sho, classical shog, come.

Final gs is dropped in words such as cha, classical lchags, iron; to, classical ltogs, hunger.

Final d is dropped and the preceding vowel is modified so that a becomes e (i.e., probably \ddot{a}), o becomes e, o, or oe, i.e., probably \ddot{o} , etc.; thus, ke, classical brgyad, eight; te, classical 'adod, sit; kaze, classical $ga-\underline{ts}hod$, how much; khyo, classical khyod, thou; e and yoe, classical yod, is.

Final n seems to exercise a similar influence on a preceding vowel. Compare the suffix of the present participle ken or kin, Ladakhī mkhan.

Final s is dropped; compare tham-je, classical thams-chad, all. A preceding vowel is modified, and probably lengthened; thus, le, i.e., $l\ddot{a}$, classical las, from; $ny\bar{\imath}$, classical gnyis, two.

In compound consonants containing a subscribed y as second component in classical Tibetan, this y is dropped before i and e; thus, khi, classical khyi, dog; pe, classical byed, do. In other cases y is retained after gutturals; thus, khyo, classical khyod, thou; kyap, classical rgyab, back.

By becomes ch; thus, cha, classical bya, bird.

KĀGATE.

R is dropped after k, g, and d, and probably also after other mutes. Kr, gr and dr become d or t; thus, ta, classical skra, hair; dem-ba, classical 'agram-pa, cheek; do, classical 'agro, go; te, classical 'adri, ask, etc. In tuk, classical drug, six, dr has been changed to t, and it is probable that the d and t in the other instances just quoted were originally likewise cerebral. Note prang-bu, poor.

Zl becomes d in dawa, classical zla-ba, moon, and lh is replaced by lekh in lekham, classical lham, shoe.

In other compounds the first consonant is dropped; thus, lang, classical glang, bull; lep, classical sleb, arrive; kang-ba, classical rkang-ba, foot; ta, classical rta, horse; che, classical lche, tongue; ke, classical skad, sound; tong-bu, classical sdong-po, tree; nang, classical gnang, give; ngul, classical dngul, silver; tin, i.e., tün, classical bdun, seven, and so forth.

Note sup-tur instead of sur-tup, classical sor-gdub, finger ring.

Articles.—The numeral *chik*, one, is used as an indefinite, and the demonstrative pronoun *di*, this, as a definite article; thus, *mi chik*, a man; *angsha-di*, the share.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes; thus, no, brother; nu-mu, sister: pu, son; po-mo, daughter: ta-bu, horse; ta-mu, mare: changre, he-goat; ra-ma, she-goat: khyesa, male deer; khyesa ama, female deer, etc.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is kya; thus, aba-kya, fathers; compare cha in Danjong-ka.

Case.—The suffix of the genitive is i, ki, or gi after vowels, and i or ki after consonants. The same form is also used as a case of the agent. The final i is, however, then probably long. Thus, aba chik-i, of a father; ta-bi, from ta-bu-i, of a horse; tong-bu-gi, of a tree; phak-ki, by the pigs, etc. The definite article is often added in the genitive; thus, aba chik-i-di, of a father. Di is used alone as a genitive suffix in po-mu-di, of daughters.

Other cases are formed by adding suffixes such as la, in, to; sa-le, from the place of, from; minji, minjik, min-zi, min-zik, from; dung-la, before, etc. Note aba-kei, to fathers.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is the Naipālī bhanda; thus, kho-i a-zi bhanda no rim-bu-du, his sister than brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I khyo, thou kho, he

ngi-kya, o-kya, we khyo, you khung, khung-kya, they.

The pronouns are inflected like nouns.

Other pronouns are di, this; o and o-di, that; su, who? chi, what? kan-di, which? etc.

Verbs.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are e and du. Instead of e we also find ye and yoe; compare classical Tibetan yod. In the past tense we find woe.

Finite verb.—The verb is still virtually a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, and the plural suffix kya can be added. Thus, kasa-te-vol. III, PART I.

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me-ji kan-di phak-ki sa-gen-kya, husks-from which pigs-by eating, from the husks which the pigs ate.

Present time.—A present is formed by adding yin to a participle ending in ka, pa, etc.; thus, $ngai\ rob-ken$, i.e. rob-ka-yin, I strike; $nga\ do-n$, i.e. do-a-yin, I go. It is perhaps identical with ne in ong-ne, they are.

A compound present is formed by adding gu or ku, or, after vowels, u, and the verb substantive; thus, chho-u-du, he is feeding; kho-i rob-ku-du, he strikes; te-ku-e, he lives; ong-gu du-ba, he is coming.

Du-ba, is, in the last instance contains the usual suffix of the participle; compare also ye-ba, they are. To in rob-to, they strike, is probably the copula du.

Past time.—The participle ending in ba or pa is commonly also used as a past tense, especially in the second person; thus, nyo-ba, I brought, thou broughtest; kal-pa, wentest; se-pa, killedest.

The most common past tense is formed by adding song, or, usually, sing, (i.e., probably $s\ddot{u}ng$); thus, gal-song and kal-sing, he went. The common present is also used as a past; thus, e-kin, i.e. yod-ka-yin, was.

A perfect is effected by adding du; thus, nye-sing-du, has been found.

Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, don, I will go; lap-ken, I will say; ong-do, I shall be. I do not understand the form ngai rob-ken dei, I shall strike. Dei is perhaps an attempt at writing dü, i.e., du, is.

Imperative.—As in classical Tibetan, an a is often changed to o in the imperative; thus, song, go; so, eat; long, stand. The unaltered base is used in forms such as shi, die; do, go; ter, give. Sometimes we find suffixes added such as kong, tong, dung, and ter; thus, rob-kong (i.e. perhaps rob-ka-tong) and rob-tong, beat; pe-dung (i.e. perhaps byed-tong), make; ken-ter, put on.

Note khusi pe-ga, let us make merry; khusi pe-dung pe-kogem, we should make merry; ya-bu pe-za-ga, that I might feast.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most common verbal noun is formed by adding *che*, or, after vowels, *ze*; thus, *lap-che*, to say; *do-ze*, to go. A suffix a occurs in *charai-te-ya-la*, in order to feed.

Relative participles are formed by adding ken or gen and ba. The interrogative pronoun kan-di, which? is used as a relative; thus, kasa-te-meji kan-di phak-ki sa-gen-kya, from the husks which the pigs ate; di pu kan-di khyoi-di chhega-kya sa-sing-ba, this son who thy goods devoured.

Adverbial participles are formed by adding postpositions to the base; thus, lap-na, saying-in, if you say; ong-a-te-su, arriving-after, when he came.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding di, ti, or di-ma-rang; thus, rob-sing-di, having beaten; kal-di-ma-rang, having gone. Ma-rang is a postposition which governs the genitive. It is therefore also added to the genitive of the base; thus, sing-i-ma-rang, having been. Tha-ma-la, at the end of, is used instead in ke-kyap-ti tha-ma-la, voice-throwing after, having called.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed me or ma; thus, kal-di me-ken, going not-were, did not go; me-ter-ekin, not-giving-was, did not give; ma-nyin,

did not wish. *Mat* is sometimes used instead; thus, *mat-ter*, didst not give; *tor-mat*, I did not transgress. It will be seen that *mat* sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of words on pp. 142 and ff.

[No. 12.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

KAGATE DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Michik-i-di pe-za nyī ekin. O-la-thong-di kanchha-ki lap-sing, Man one-of sons twowere. Them-among younger-by said. 'е a-ba, sampati-min-jik nga-i angsha-di nga-la nang.' O-le kho-i father, property-from m_{y} share-the me-to give.' Then him-by khung-kei rang-i bo-kep-ter-sing. sampati Nyi-ma mang-bu-rang kal-di them-to self-of property divided-gave. Daysmany-even going me-ken. kanchha phu tham-je batul-ti-di tharung-bu des-la kal-sing: not-were, young allgathering distantcountry-to went; o-le kho-i tham-je o-la ma-ya-ba le-ga pedi-ma-rang chij urāi-te-sing. there not-good and workdone-having him-by allproperty squandered. Jab kho-i tham-je urāī-te-sing, kho o-le des-la anikāl kal-sing: When him-by allsquandered, then thatcountry-in famine went; o-le kho prang-bu kal-sing. O-le kho kal-di-ma-rang 0 des-la poor and he went. And hegone-having thatcountry-in te-ken-sa-ke-la chik sa-la te-che pe-sing. Khoi kho-la sing-la phak inhabitants-in oneliving made. Him-by him-to field-in swine charai-te-ya-la tang-sing. O-le khoi kasa-te-me-ji kan-di phak-ki him-by those feeding-for sent. Then husks-from which swine-by sagen-kya, to-pa kang-je ngaï os-te-la. O-le si-nang kho-la chyang eating-were, ownbelly fill-to wanted. Andanyone-by him-to anything me-ter-e-kin. O-le kho-la chet kal-sing. o-le khoi lap-sing, 'nga-i Andhim-to not-giving-was. sensewent, andhim-by said, 'my a-ba-di khetālā-kei-di mang-bu-rang saje ong-ne, o-le nga to-pa-to-di father-of servants-of many-even breadsare, and I belly-hungering lang-di siwe. Nga a-ba-sa-la don. o-le kho-sa-la die. I arisen-having father's-place-to will-go, and his-place-to " e kal-di-ma-rang lap-ken, a-ba, nga-i sarga-ki dung-la o-le rang-i "O gone-having say, father, me-byheaven-of *before* andyou-of tung-la pāp pe-sing. Nga phir-cha rang-i pu lap-che lāik-ki-di me. did. before again your say-to worthy not. rangi Nga-la khetālā-min-ji chik-pa-rang pedung.", O-le kho Me-to your-own servants-from one-also make." Then he

lang-di-ma-rang rangi a-ba-sa-la gal-song. Tara kho tharung-bu arisen-having father's-place-to own went. Buthefar-off dayā ekin, khoi a-ba-gi kho-la thong-di pe-sing. O-le chhung-di-ma-rang hisfather-by him-to was, seeing mercy made. And run-having dem-ba-la jar-ti-ma-rang kho-la chok-pe-sing. kho-i kho-la lap-sing, Pu-gi his cheek-on adhering him-to kiss-made. Son-by him-to said. 'e a-ba. nga-gi sarga-di tung-la o-le khyo-i tung-la pāp pe-sing, 'O father, me-by heaven-of before and you-of before sindid, and phircha hisāb khyo-i рu lap-che-gi me.' O-le a-ba-gi rangi again your saying-of matter 80n not. Andfather-by own naukar-kya-la lap-sing, 'kap-tar bhanda ten-di-ma-rang ya-bu kela kho-la servants-to said, 'all than goodclothtaken-having him-to ken-ter. O-le kho-i lak-pa-la sup-tur o-le kang-ba-la lekham kenter: put-on. And hishand-on ring and feet-on shoes put; o-le kva-ba riu khyung-di-ma-rang set-tong. O-le o-kya \mathbf{sa} o-le and fat kidbrought-having kill. And weeat and khusi-pega. Che-le lap-na. di nga-i-di pu si-di eken. phir-cha merry-make-shall. Whysaying-on, this mysondeadwas, againthar-sing; tor-ti-eken, phircha nye-sing.' O-le khung-kya khusi pe-ze saved-was; lost-was, again found-was.' Then they merry make-to kal-sing. went.

Kho-i jetha pu sing-la eken. O-le jab kho onga-te-su Hiseldersonfield-inwas. And whenhe coming khim-sa-la lep-sing; bājā o-le nāch-ki ke the- $\sin \alpha$. O-le kho-gi house-place-to then music arrived: dancing-of heard. soundThen him-by nya-rangi mi chik-la ke-kvap-ti tha-ma-la te-sing. 'di chum-ba? own man one-to voice-throwing after 'this asked, what-is?' Kho-i kho-la lap-sing, 'khyo-rangi no wang-di-e, Him-by him-to said, 'your-own younger-brother come-is, and khyo-rangi a-ba-gi kya-ba riu se-sing. Che-le lap-na, kho-la ya-bu your father-by fatkidkilled. Whysaying-on, him wellnye-sing-du.' O-le kho-i sitang-pe-sing, o-le nang-la do-ze ma-nyim. found-has.' Andhim-by anger-made, andinsidego-to not-wished. O-karan kho-i a-ba phi-la ong-di kho-la samjāi-te-sing. Kho-i That-reason hisfather outsidecoming himentreated. Him-bya-ba-la jawab ter-sing, 'teya, nga o-je lo-minji khyo-rangi hisāb father-to answer gave, · lo. Iso-many years-from your service pewi o-le namang rangi $t_{1}m$ namang tor-mat. O-le rangi doandever your order ever broke-not. And yourself-by

nga-i-to nyim-bu ya-bu nga-la mi-kya namang chig-ang riu mat-ter, wellme-to friends withever one-even kidnot-gave, mype-za-ga. O-le khyo-gi di kan-di chhya-mu-kya nyim-bu pu withharlotsmaking-for. And your this80n who khyo-i kho-i vaste-la khyo-i-di chhega-kya sa-sing-ba, nam ong-bu, o-te-su you-by hissake-for your goodswasted,when came, then kya-ba se-pa.' A-ba-gi kho-la lap-sing, 'е рu, khyo nga riu killed.' Father-by said, ' O son, you me fatkidhim-to nyimbu ya-range. O-le chi nga-i-di-cha, 0 sentha khyo-i-di-rang. Andwhatthine-also.withare. mine-is, thatallO-le ya-bu khusi pedung pe-ko-gem. Che-le lap-na, di khyo-i pe-di And welldoing merry makeshould. Whysaying-on, this your no sidi-eken, phir-cha thar-sing; tor-te eken, phir-cha again younger-brother dead-was, saved-was; lostagain was, nye-sing.' found-was.'

SHARPA.

The Tibetan word shar means 'east,' and shar-pa accordingly means 'inhabitant of an eastern country.' The latter word is commonly used to denote the Bhōṭiās of north-eastern Nepal and their dialect. They are also found as immigrants outside of Nepal. During the preliminary operations of this Survey their dialect was reported to be spoken in Darjeeling and Sikkim. Estimates of the number of speakers were only forwarded from Sikkim, as follows:—

At the last Census of 1901 the Sharpa dialect was returned from the following districts:—

Darjeeling		•				•		•	•	•	•	•		3, 47 7
Sikkim														912
Jalpaiguri	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	18
											То	TAL	•	4,407

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HUNTER, W. W., -A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from Darjeeling. In addition to these texts I have also made use of some few sentences which were added at the end of the Parable. The spelling of the texts is influenced by the orthography of classical Tibetan, and it does not allow us to judge about all niceties of pronunciation. It is, however, quite possible to get a general idea of the phonetic system.

Sharpa is closely connected with Kāgate and Danjong-ka. It can, with some correctness, be described as a form of the latter dialect, and it has very few characteristics of its own.

Pronunciation.—The vowels are modified in various ways, usually under the influence of following consonants. Sometimes also concurrent vowels are contracted; thus, sui and si, i.e., probably $s\ddot{u}$, whose; di, classical 'agro-i, of the going; khi, thy, from khyo, thou, and so forth.

The soft initials of classical Tibetan are sometimes represented by soft and sometimes by hard consonants; thus, dang and tang, and; bu and pu, son. The actual pronunciation is probably an aspirated soft consonant as in most dialects of Central Tibetan.

Final g and b are probably pronounced as k, p, respectively. They are, however, usually written g, b, respectively; thus, chig, one; mig, eye; shog, come; gyab, back; lep, arrive.

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Final d is often left unchanged; thus, dod, sit; yod, is. Such forms are due to the influence of the orthography of the classical language, and d is dropped or changed to t in the actual pronunciation. At the same time a preceding vowel is modified. A becomes e, i.e., probably \ddot{a} ; o becomes oi, (i.e., \ddot{o}); and u probably becomes \ddot{u} . Compare gye, classical brgyad, eight; goid-ma, classical rgod-ma, mare; goi, classical bgod, divide; khyo and khyod, thou; gi, classical bgyid, do, and so on. It will be seen that the d is often preserved in writing.

Final n seems to affect a preceding a in a similar way; compare sem-chen, classical sem-chan, animal; shing-tab-khen, cultivator; ten, classical dran, remember. It is sometimes dropped after i; compare the suffix gi of the present participle, classical gin.

Final s is probably always dropped, or rather changed to i. This i then coalesces with the preceding vowel so that a becomes \ddot{a} , for which i or ai is often written; os becomes oi, i.e., probably \ddot{o} ; us becomes ui or ue, (i.e., probably \ddot{u}); thus, $n\ddot{a}$ and ni, classical nas, from; goi, it is wanted, classical dgos; thoi-pai, on hearing, classical thos-pas; lue, entreated, classical bslus, etc. The final s is, however, often retained in writing; thus, ngas, by me; papa-s, by the father; yog-pu-s, by the servant, etc.

Final gs is dropped in words such as cha, classical lchags, iron; le-mo, classical legs-pa, good; lho-ba, classical ltogs-pa, hunger. The latter example is not certain, for we also find tog-ni, hungering. The interjection lags, O, is classical Tibetan.

Compound consonants are mainly simplified in the same way as in Kagate.

Ky, khy, and gy are commonly retained; thus, kyid-po and kid-po, merry; khyod and khyo, thou; gyab, back. Y is, however, often dropped before i; thus, kyid-po and kid-po, merry; khi, dog; khi, thy; gi, classical bgyid, do.

Py, phy, and by become ch, chh, and ch, respectively; thus, chod-pa, classical spyod-pa, behaviour; chhi-la, classical phyi-la, outside; chung, classical 'abyung, became; ched-pa, classical byed-pa, do. Y is however, also in this case, often dropped before i; thus, phin, classical phyin, go; bin, classical sbyin, give.

Compounds consisting of a mute consonant followed by an r are changed to the corresponding cerebral. The cerebrals were not distinguished from the dentals in the original specimen. I have, however, introduced them because it seems probable that Sharpa does not, in this respect, differ from Dänjongkä. Compare tog, classical grogs, friend; don, classical mgron, feast; tug, classical drug, six; thug, classical phrug, young, etc.

Zl becomes d in da-wa, classical zla-ba, moon.

In most other cases the first consonant is dropped. Compare lu, classical slu, entice; lang, classical glang, bull; lep, classical sleb, arrive; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot, gyab, classical rgyab, back; goid-ma, classical rgod-ma, mare; na, classical rna, ear; nga, classical lnga, five; cha, classical lchags, iron; ter, classical ster, give; tor, classical gtor, throw; sos, classical gsos, recover; shi, classical bzhi, four, and so forth.

Articles.—The numeral chig, one, is used as an indefinite, and demonstrative pronouns as a definite article; thus, mi chig, a man; u-ju te, the elder brother; papa ti, the father.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of affixes or by using different words. Compare ta, horse; goid-ma, mare: lang, bull; chhung-ma, cow: khi, dog; khi-mo, bitch: ra-pho, he goat; ra-mo, she goat.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is $\underline{ts}ho$, classical $\underline{ts}hogs$, multitude; thus, $papa-\underline{ts}ho$, fathers.

Case.—The various cases are, broadly speaking, formed as in classical Tibetan.

The suffix of the genitive is i, or, after consonants, gi or ki; thus, agu-i, uncle's; yul-gi, of a country; chig-gi and chig-ki, one's.

The case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental, is formed by adding s to the base or to the genitive. This s is probably everywhere pronounced as i; compare pa-ba-s, by the father; phag-pa-i, (eaten) by the pigs; thag-pa-i, (bind him) with ropes; pu-jung-gi, by the son.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, or, if they precede it, are put in the genitive; thus, ta karpa, the white horse; kun-la phen-pai cha-wa che, all-to beneficial work do.

The particle of comparison is si-na; thus, khoi uju te aji si-na ring-po nog, his brother the sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. Si-na literally means 'saying-in,' 'if you compare.'

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. Khal-jig, score-one, twenty, occurs in the sentence nga lo khal-jig song, I years twenty went, I am twenty vears old. Compare Sunwar khal-kā; Khambu ikkhālo; Róng khā-kāt, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I khyod, khyed, khyo, thou kho, he
nga-i, my khyod-ki, khyed-ki, khi, thy kho-i, his
dak-pu, nga-tsho, we khyod-tsho, khyod-rang, you kho-tsho, they

Demonstrative pronouns are de, te, that; di, this.

Interrogatives are su, who? sui, si, whose? gang, kang, what?

Verbs.—The verb substantive is formed from various bases such as yin, yod, od, nok, yong, chung, etc. Nok is probably derived from in-nok.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, shi, I die.

The participle ending in pa is sometimes used in a similar way; thus, yod-pa, is.

The most common present is formed by adding gi, classical gin, and yot in the first, and nog in the second and third persons. Thus, $ngas\ dung$ -gi-yod, I beating am; $khyod\ do$ - $gi\ nog$, thou goest; tsho- $gi\ nog$, he is feeding.

Past time.—The past base alone is used in forms such as nang, classical gnang, gavest; tor, classical gtor, he threw; ma doe, classical ma 'agros, he did not go; lue, classical bslus, he entreated.

The participle ending in pa, ba, etc., is also used as a past; thus, shus-pa, he said; compare nyo-b, i.e., nyo-ba, boughtest.

Yin is often added to this form; thus, ong-wa yin, I have come; dung-ba-yin, I struck; son-pa-yin, he has revived.

The suffix song is added in forms such as dung-song, you struck, they struck; gal-song, wentest, went. Chung, became, is used in the same way in nyed-chung, he was found.

Another past tense is formed by adding up and doubling a final consonant; thus, gal-lup, we went; yot-tup, they were. In gal-lup-bin, I went, bin has been added to this form.

Future.—The suffix of the future is yong; thus, ngas dung-yong, I shall strike. Shu-gyu-yin, I will say, literally means 'saying-for-is.' Chidub-bin, we should make (merry) is the same form as that just mentioned under the head of past time.

Imperative.—The imperative is regularly formed; thus, kon, put; so, eat; khur-shog, take-come, bring. Note the suffix in so-ro, make (me your servant).

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, <u>tsho-la</u>, in order to feed; tor-rung, throwing-though, though he wasted; si-na, saying-in, if you say.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding $n\ddot{a}$, or ni to this noun; thus, $dung-n\ddot{a}$, having beaten; khur-ni, having taken.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding gyu, compare classical rgyu. Thus, dung-gyu, to beat; che-gyu-la, to make; nga-la nor thob-gyu-di, me-to property gettingthe, the property which I shall get.

The suffix pa, ba is used in the same wide way as in classical Tibetan. Compare phag-pai sa-wai sowas, pigs-by eaten husks-by, by means of the husks which the pigs ate; thoi-pai, on hearing.

The suffix gi in dung-gi nog, beating, has already been mentioned. It is identical with the i in di-nog, going.

The suffix up which has been mentioned under the head of past time, is also used to form a participle; thus, khi lag-pa-la yod-tup di gang yin, your hand-in being the what is? what is it that you have in your hand?

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma ter, he did not give; ma nang, didst not give. In compound tenses ma is inserted between the base and the auxiliary; thus, a-ring chhar-pa gyab-ma-song, to-day rain strike-not-went, it has not rained to-day. Ma is probably replaced by mi in the present and future.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 143 and ff.

[No. 13.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

SHARPA DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Michig-la bu-jung nyi vot-tup. Bu-jung chhung-na $d\mathbf{e}$ pa·ba·la Manone-to sons twowere. Son younger that father-to shus-pa, 'pa-ba lags, nga-la nor thob-gyu di goi-nang.' Pa-bas asked, 'father me-to property getting-for 0, the divide-give.' Father-by nor goi-bin. Mang-po ma-chhin bu-jung chhung-na te-ri property divided-gave. Much not-elapsed son younger property allkhur-ni yul thag-ring-po-la gal-song. \mathbf{Y} ul te-la norte-ri chod-pa taking country far-to Country that in property all behaviour went. ngan-pa che-ni tor. Nor te-ri tor-tshar-ni mu-ge baddone-having threw. Property allthrowing-finishing-after famine te-la chung-ni, kho lho-ba-lang-ni chhen-po vul yul te-vi country that-in happening, he bigreason-rising country that-of country-man chig-ki tsa-la phin-ni, kho yul-mi shing-la phag-pa tsho-la tang. near gone-having, one of thatcountry-man field-in swine feed-to Kho phag-pa-i sa-wai so-was rang-gi khog-pa kang-ga-kyang Thoseswine-by eaten husks-from own belly fill-glad-though man sus-kyang kho-la ma ter. Te-ni kho ten-sos-ni, 'ngai papa-la la-pa not gave. Then he thought-restoring, 'my anyone-by him-to father-to workers mang-po-la st-gyu yod-pa, mo-zed lhag-pa yang yod. Nga tog-ni shi. many-to foodbesidesmore alsois. hungering die. Nga lang-ni papa-i $\underline{\mathbf{t}}\mathbf{s}\mathbf{a}$ -la do-yin, papa-la di-da shu-gyu-yin, "papa te-ni father-of near arising go-will, then father-to thus say-will, "father lags, khyed tang nam-kha tung-du nyed-pa ched-pa-yin. Nga ta-nä 0, theeand heaven *before* sin. done-have. I now-from khyed-ki bu-jung os-pa med. Nga khyed-ki la-pa chig tang-da-wa so-ro."; worthy not. thyMethyservant one likemake." Kho lang-ni papa-i dung-du gal-ni, kho thag-ring-po-la yod, kho-i Hearising father of near gone-having, he distance-athis thong-ni chhong-ni pu-jung jing-ba-la sim-ni pu-ka-kyal-song. Te-ni father-by seeing jumping sonneck-on holding kissed. Then

nyed-pa tung-tu nam-kha tang khyed-ki pu-jung-gi, 'papa ngas lags, before sinthee-of son-by, father me-by heaven and 0, tes vog-po-tsho-la, med,' shus-pas, papa che-ni khyed-ki pu-jung-gi os worthy not,' saying-on, father that-by servants-to, done-having thee-of son-of sor-dub, chig khur-shog kon; lag-pa-la 'chhu-ba tshang-ma si-na le-mo hand-on ring, 'cloth bring put; allthan goodone kid-po chidub-bin. kang-pa-la katsa yang peu gya-mo chig se-ni kon. Te-ni one killing merry make-should. feet-on bootsalsoThen calffat put. Gang-la si-na, pu-jung di shi-ni, son-pa-yin; tor-ni, yang nga-i saying,died-having, alive-is; lost-being, alsothisWhymysonnved-chung,' si-ni kvid-po ched-pa. found-became,' made. saying merry

khang-pa-i tsa-la u-ju te shing-nä log-ni ong-ni Tang field-from returning house-of near Andelder-brother the coming shap-ro thoi-pai yog-po chig ked-tang-ni. lep-pa tang dam-nyeng tang hearing servant call-giving, arrived and music and dancing oneYog-pus, 'khyod-ki 'di kang yin?' nu-o ton-dag di. is? asked. Servant-by, ' thy younger-brother coming, this reason whatlog-pa-i ton-la peu gya·mo se-ni papas kho natsa med-pa without returning-of sake-for calf fatkilling feast father-by he sickness Kho di thoi-ni tshig-pa sos-ni khang-pa-la doe. Papa-ti tang-song.' $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ this hearing angereating house-into not went. Father-the gave.' HePu-jung-gi, 'papa, lo di-dzo chhi-la thon-ni bu-jung-la lue. ngas son-to outside coming enticed. Son-by, father, me-by years so-many Khyed-ki kyid-po che-gyu-la ngai tog-po khved-ki ka ma gal. word not transgressed. Thee-by myfriends merry making-for thee-of Khyed-ki bu-jung dinor te-ri ra-thug chig yang ma-nang. Thee-of this property goat-young one even not-gavest. son allpeu gyag-pa nang.' ma-le che-ni tor-rung, kho-la Papas. chod-pa behaviour not-good doing threw-though, him-to calffatgavest.' Father-by, khyo-rang nga tang nyam-bu yod. Nga-la kang yod, khyod-ki 'pu-jung, Me-to thine thou andwithart. what'son. me tor-ni, Khyod-ki di shi-ni, son-pa-yin; nyed-pa vin. nu-o Thee-of younger-brother this died-having, alive-is; lost-being, found kyid-po ched-pai yin-pas os yin.' making-of merry worthy is.' being-by

DÄNJONG-KÄ OR BHŌŢIĀ OF SIKKIM.

The northern half of the State of Sikkim is inhabited by a tribe of Tibetan race which is said to have immigrated from Tsang. They speak a dialect which is closely related to the dialects of Central Tibet, but which has also, in some respects, struck out independent lines of its own. More recent immigrants from Tibet speak the Lhasa dialect.

Sikkim is the Gurkha name of the State. The indigenous denomination is $\dot{D}\ddot{a}$ -njong, i.e., rice-district. The Rev. Graham Sandberg, who has written a manual of the characteristic Tibetan dialect of the State, has therefore proposed to call it $\dot{D}\ddot{a}$ -njong-kä, the language of $\ddot{D}\ddot{a}$ njong.

According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey the number of speakers was said to be about 20,000. This estimate is, however, far above the mark, and at the last Census of 1901 the returns under the head of Sikkim Bhōṭiā were as follows:—

Sikkim		•			•						•			7,278
Darjeeling					•	•	•		•			•	•	1,545
24.Parganas	3	•	•	•	•	•	•					0		1
Manbhum	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•		1
											To	FAL	3	8.825

AUTHORITY-

Sandberg, Graham,—Manual of the Sikkim Bhutia Language or Denjong ké. Calcutta, 1888. Second edition, Westminster, 1895.

I am indebted to Mr. David MacDonald for a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Bhōṭiā of Sikkim. I have printed it in Tibetan type and in transliteration. The spelling of the Tibetan text is not phonetic but adapted to the practice of classical Tibetan. I have therefore added a phonetical transliteration in italics. It is based on indications given in Mr. MacDonald's transcript and on Mr. Sandberg's manual.

Pronunciation.—Final vowels are apt to be dropped. Compare pum, classical bu-mo, daughter; lem, classical legs-mo, good; nyim, classical nyi-ma, day; gom, classical sgo-mo, door, etc. It will be seen that the dropped vowel is in all these cases preceded by an m.

Initial soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration, so that they sound like hard letters, with or without aspiration. Compare kyap, classical rgyab, beat; toi, classical dos, a load; pu, classical bu, son; phin, classical byin, give, etc.

The initial consonant of the suffixes pa, ba, po, bo, is often assimilated to a preceding consonant; thus, phak-ko, a pig; yok-ku, a servant; lak-ka, a hand; $\underline{tshil-lu}$, fat. It is dropped after vowels; thus, ga-u, classical dga-ba, glad; $\underline{tse-o}$, classical $\underline{tse-po}$, basket.

Final g is pronounced as k; thus, lok-she, classical log-pa, to return. Sometimes, however, it is so indistinct as to be almost inaudible. Compare chi, classical gchig, one; nga-cha, classical nga-chag, we; chak-tha, classical lchags-thag, chain.

Final b is pronounced as p; thus, kyap, classical rgyab, beat.

Final d, n, and l modify the sound of a preceding vowel, a to \ddot{a} , o to \ddot{o} , and u to \ddot{u} . D and l, and occasionally also n, are dropped. Compare $k\ddot{a}$, classical skad, sound; $chh\ddot{o}$, classical khyod, thou; $sa-r\ddot{u}$, classical sa-rud, landslip; $ny\ddot{a}n-she$, classical nyan-pa, to hear; $s\ddot{o}$, classical gson, alive; $t\ddot{o}n-lo$, classical don-la, on account of; $\underline{ts}h\ddot{o}n$, classical, $\underline{ts}hon$, colour; $d\ddot{u}n$, classical mdun, before; $g\ddot{a}$, classical, 'agal, transgress; $gy\ddot{a}-po$, classical rgyal-po, king; $ng\ddot{u}$, classical dngul, silver, etc.

Final s is dropped, and the preceding vowel is modified in the same way as in the case of final d; thus, nä, classical nas, barley; ngö, classical dngos, real. Sometimes also final s is changed to i; thus shei, classical shes, know; toi, classical dos, a load; thui, classical khrus, bath. In go-pe, classical dgos-pa, it is necessary, it is simply dropped.

The preceding vowel is probably lengthened; compare $di-ky\bar{i}$, by him, classical 'adi-is.

S after consonants is simply dropped, and the preceding consonant is treated as final; thus, lep, classical bslebs, arrive; tok, classical ltogs, hunger; sung, classical gsungs, called. Tik-chhi, pity, corresponds to classical thugs-rje, and is apparently incorrect.

Compound consonants containing a subscribed y as second component in classical Tibetan are commonly retained if the following vowel is a, i, or e. Y is, however, in such cases often dropped. It should be noted that e and ya are often interchangeable. Compare kyi-po, classical skyid-po, merry; kil-tu, classical dkyil-tu, in the middle; khim, classical khyim, house; khek, classical khyags, ice; kyap, classical rgyab, beat; kel-she, classical sgyel-ba, put on; phye, classical phyed, half; phya, classical bya, bird; phya and be, classical byed, do, etc. Sometimes, however, such compounds are changed to the palatal corresponding to the initial component; thus, $chk\ddot{o}$, classical khyod, thou; chil-bu, classical spyil-po, hut.

As regards compounds ending in r, kr, khr, and gr are apparently regularly changed to ky, khy, gy, respectively. Compare kyok-she, classical dkrog-pa, to churn; kya, classical skra, hair; gyo-ma, classical grog-ma, ant; khyak, classical khrag, blood. We also find the common change into cerebrals; compare dib-ma, classical grib-ma, shade; dik-e, classical 'agrig-pa, it is enough. In the specimen we find gra, classical sgra, sound; note also ro, classical grogs, assistance.

Other compounds ending in r are regularly changed to cerebrals; thus, te, classical dre, mule; den-she, classical dren-pa, to pour; di-she, classical 'adri-la, to ask; thel-tik, classical phral-grig, ready; the-lo, classical phred-la, across; $d\ddot{a}$, classical 'abras, rice; tak, classical brag, rock, etc. Note phugu, classical phrugu, child; trin, classical sprin, cloud; $d\ddot{u}n$ -tra, classical bdun-phrag, week, etc.

Sr become s; thus, sap-chak, classical srab-lchags, bit; sek-she, classical sreg-pa, burn; sim-pa, classical srin-bu, leech.

Zl become d; thus, da-v, classical zla-la, moon. Other compounds ending in l become l or lh; thus, lep and lhep, classical sleb, arrive; $lh\ddot{o}$ -she, classical glod-pa, to loosen.

In other compounds the first component is dropped; thus, kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; oyap, classical rgyab, back; je-she, classical rjed-pa, forget; ta, classical rta, horse: tok, classical ltogs, hunger; ke, classical ske, neck; gom, classical sgo-mo, door;

chi, classical gchig, one; ser, classical gser, gold; da-nyi, classical bda-ba, to drive; go, classical mgo, head, and so forth.

Article.—The numeral chi, one, is used as an indefinite and the pronoun di, this, as a definite article.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns in most characteristics agrees with the Tibetan of Lhasa. The suffix la of the dative is, however, pronounced lo; thus, khim-lo, to the house. The suffix of the genitive is kyi, ki, or, if the word in classical Tibetan ends in a vowel, i; thus, khim-kyi or khim-ki, of a house; phya-i or phye, of a bird. The suffix kyi, ki is, however, often also used after vowels. The case of the agent is formed by -lengthening the final i of the genitive.

The suffixes of the plural are cha and tsho or tshu.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is, $l\ddot{a}$, from, *i.e.*, the suffix of the ablative; thus, \underline{tsim} phi-di gün-lä tho-bä, peak that all-from high-is, that peak is the highest.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I	chhö, thou	kho, khu, he
$nga-k\bar{\imath}$, by me	chhö-kī, by thee	khoyī, khö, by him
nge, my	chhö-kyi, thy	khoi, his
nga- cha , we	<i>chhö</i> , you	khong, kho-cha, they.

Other pronouns are di, this, that; d-di, this; te, phi-di, that; ka, ke, who? kan, what? etc.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is usually in or yin in the first person, and $b\ddot{a}$, $p\ddot{a}$, or $m\ddot{a}$, in the second and third. Other bases such as du, $y\ddot{o}$, etc., are also used.

Present time.—The usual present tense is formed by adding do or do-in in the first, and $b\ddot{a}$ or do, do- $b\ddot{a}$, to- $b\ddot{a}$, in the second and third persons; thus, $nga\ sa$ -do-in, I eat; $nga\ shi$ -do, I die; $kho\ d\ddot{u}$ -to- $b\ddot{a}$, he sits; $chh\ddot{o}\ ta$ -ring \underline{ts} ang $mam\ tam$ - $p\ddot{a}$, you to-day clean very look. In the second and third persons du or $b\ddot{a}$ are also often added to a participle ending in chen; thus, $khu\ ong$ -chen-du, he is coming.

Past time.—A common past tense is formed by adding $\underline{zh}e$, che, or jhe; thus, phi $\underline{zh}e$, he wrote. A past is also formed by adding song; thus, shi-song, he died. Du or $\underline{zh}e$ can be added; thus, phi-song-du, he has written; shi-song-du, he did die.

In the Parable the past is usually formed by adding the verb substantive to a participle ending in po, bo, u; thus, yö-po-mä, they were; thop-po-in, he is found, I found him; be-u-in, I made; shu-u-mä, he said, etc.

Future.—The usual future is formed by adding the verb substantive to the verbal noun ending in she or nyi; thus, nga thung-she-in, I shall drink; kho thung-she-bä, he will drink.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, sa, eat. Words such as tang, nang, nya, chuk, mä, etc., can be added; thus, to <u>tso-tang</u>, cook food; lam di ten-nang, please show the way; gyop bä-mä, be quick; be-chuk, make. Note bya-ge, let us make (merry), where ge corresponds to classical Tibetan dgos, it is necessary.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding she or nyi; thus, kap-she or kap-nyi, to cover. Nyi is common in the Darjeeling district. The classical verbal noun ending in pa, ba, etc., is of course also used.

The most common relative participle is formed by adding khen; thus, chhö tasong nyo-khen om di nga-lo nang, you this-morning bought milk the me-to give, give me the milk you bought this morning. In the Parable we also find the usual classical relative participle ending in pa, etc.; thus, nga-lo thop-she yö-pai kyu-chha, me-to to-be-got being goods, the goods which I shall get.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding ti, di, etc.; thus, song-ti and song-di, having gone.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma in the past and imperative, and a prefixed mi in the present and future. The negative is usually inserted before auxiliaries; thus, $ma\ lap$, don't say; $phin\ ma\ che$, he did not give; $ong\ ny\dot{v}$ m-in, he will not come; $kho\ shi\ ma\ song$, he has not died; $mang\ g\ddot{a}$, classical $ma\ 'agal$, I did not transgress.

Interrogative particle.—The interrogative particle is bo, mo, or o; thus, chhō song-bo, did you go? chhō luk phidi tshong-she-mo, will you sell that sheep?

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Sandberg's Manual and to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. An incomplete list of Standard Words and Phrases based on Mr. Sandberg's Manual will be found on pp. 143 and ff.

[No. 14.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

· Pänjong-kä Dialect.

(Mr. David MacDonald and Major Waddell, 1899.)

(Ѕіккім.)

।। भ्रामिष्टमार्थे सम्बद्धाः मुक्ताः मुद्दामा मिद्दामाकृषाणी बदायश्च हृदा के विद्वाली श्वाला स्वाली हुत हुन्। ष्याच् । ट.जू. ह्यं च.जू.जू. तप्.चूं क.जू. भुदे. ट.जू. मध्टा । व्याच्यं पर्दे जुश्चाम्य हे.जू. पर्वे व्याच्यं वर्षे 15'वर्रे'यशक्षावर यें अ'र्शेर पदे वहना वें वुद्धर विवर्षे ग्रीश श्रमश उर् अश्रम यें वर्षे दे न्तुव वे क्षेत्र धुभः वना दैरः महिना विर्श्वरिने। र्षे न मिन्दे गु न के कश हुन में अभिनाश में नेश दे न क्षा अन्दर में हुन। । मृणुश्यमश्यन्यम् म्यात्रं तुः द्रार्थित्य स्थायाः स्थिति स्थायाः स्थायाः स्थायाः स्थायाः स्थायाः स्थायाः स्थायाः स यः यामुर्रेणु विद्यायान्य के मित्रमाण्य पर्देश्ची आज्ञ यदे याण्या ज्ञास्त्र के कि स्वाद्य प्राप्त विद्या के स्व भगानीयाम् विभागते । जिन्दियाम् द्वामित्रमार्थे देवेत्ययार्थे द्वामित्रमार्थे विभागते व सदः संक्षि हिन् त्या नवतः विक्षिन् संविष्य विषय क्षित्। दावेष्म सन्ति विक्षा दिन स्विष्य स्विष र्शेट्-ने:होन्:लु:ले:प्येन। ष्यःये। टःण्रीशन्यासान्तःन्टःहेन्-ण्रे:सुःसनुनःवेर्-होनाःगिनेदुःप्येन। नःसशःयःहेन्-ण्रेसु यदार्देश संस्थित। एकॅन्णु सार्चेन प्रदेशमार्थेन गुण्मा केना प्रदेश प्रदेश मार्थेन गुण्मा । क्षेप्रदेश स्थान स्थित स्थान स्यान स्थान स्यान स्थान ष्यायते इ.ज्.ज्.च्.च्.झर। ।लुबद्धरात्मातीश्वामित्वमान्तरात्मात्र्यात्मात्रम् भर्त्वरात्मा क्रेमाकुन्यात्रात्माती इमार्गो नेदुः धेद। ५ तस्य सं केंद्र गुः तुः स्वयं देश से होता । धेदा द्वर एक से ति है गुः मार्थे मार्गे हैं वि माश्चरशः ते क्षित्रमा व्यवस्थ उत्तरा सेसाद्य वा विवा । मुर्जे मोद्वर मेद्वर समामा से सहिमा के मादिना दर म्पार्या देश समित स्वर う<u>ऀ</u>८रुमात्रअत्रर्नेश्चेश्वर्राष्ट्रिन्देर्गेनुःमी। । दर्भ तु दर्भ दे भे दे भेजा मार्शें द से भेजा मि नेपर रेट्ट ने सिना वें ने से प्रेया। निमिट हैं क्वेन से ने असी नहीं मारा में प्रेया।

[No. 14.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

Pänjongkä Dialect.

(STATE SIKKIM.)

(Mr. David MacDonald and Major Waddell, 1899.)

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

Mi	g c hig-lo	bu gn	yis yod- _]	po-smad.	Khong-	gnyis-ky	yi nang-la	s chhung-sho
Mi	chi- lo	pu ny	ıi yö-	po-mä.	Khong	g-nyi - kyi	nang-le	ä chhung-sho
Man	one-to	sons two)	were.	The	em-two-of	among-fro	m younger
'adi-kyis	khu-ri-	kyi a-r	oa-lo zh	uu-smad,	'а-ро,	nga-l	lo thob-	she yod-pai
di - $kyar{\imath}$	khu-ri-	kyi a-p	oa-lo s	hu-u-mä,	'a-ро,	nga-l	thop-	she yö-pai
the-by	his	fatl	ier-to	said,	father,	me-to	get-t	o being
rgyu-chha	ı-kyi sk	eu nga-l	o gnang	:' A-	po 'adi-l	kyis kl	hu-ri-kyi	${ m `ats}{ m ho-chhas}$
kyu-chho	r-i ke	eu nga-l	o nang.	' A- ₂	-		hu- ri - kyi	$\underline{ts} ho ext{-}chh\ddot{oldsymbol{a}}$
goods-of	sha	re me-to	give.'	Fat	her the-	b y	his	living
khong-tsh	u-lo bgo	o-bsha-brg	yab-bo-sr	nad. I	'e-'adi-las	zhag :	mang-po	ma song-bai
khong- <u>ts</u> h	u-lo	go-sha-ky	ap-po-mä	•	Te-di-lä	shak	mang-po	ma song-wai
them-to		division-s	hare-made.		That-from	days	many	not going-of
'ajug-lo	bu c hhu	ng-sho	adi-kyis	thams-ch	ad mn	yam-po	bsdu-d	i yul
juk-lo	pu chh	ung-sho	$d\emph{\emph{i}} ext{-}ky\emph{\emph{\i}}$	tham-ch	ä n	yam-po	du- di	$oldsymbol{y}ioldsymbol{i}$
after i	son yo	ung	the-by	all		together	gathered-h	aving country
thag-ring	\mathbf{gchig} -lo	song-di	o-na-lo	khu-ri-l	kyi 'a <u>ts</u> h	o-chhas	spyod-po	o ma legs-po
thak-ring	${\it chi} ext{-lo}$	song-di	i o-na-lo	khu-ri-	kyi <u>ts</u> h	o-chhä	pyö-po	ma le-po
far	one-to	gone-havir	ng there	his		living	behaviou r	not good
bes-di br	lags-btan	g-bo-sma	l. Kh	u-kyis tl	ams-chad	brlage	s- <u>ts</u> ha-u-da	a o-na yul
$be ext{-}di$	lak-tang	-bo-mä.	K_{i}	hu - $yar{\imath}$	tham-chä		$\underline{ts}ha$ - u - da	o-na yü
done-having	destroy	-gave.	H	im-by	all	destr	coyed-when	then country
o-'adi-lo	mu-gu	sbom-po	gchig	thon-po	-smad.	${f Te}$	khu za-	she med-pa
\hat{a} - di - lo	mu- gu	bom-po	chi	thon-b	o-mä.	Te	khu sa-s	she me-pa
that-in	famine	big	a	occu	rred.	\mathbf{And}	he eati	ing without
lu-po-smad	l. Te-	'adi-las	khu so	ng-di y	ul a-'ad	i-kyi	yul-mi	\mathbf{gchig} da
lu-po-mä.	Te	-di-lä	khu so	ng-di	jü ádi	-kyi	y ü- m $m{i}$	chi ta
left-was.	\mathbf{T} h:	at-from	he gone	having cou	ntry that	-of	inhabitant	one with
chhags-di	$\operatorname{sdod-po}$	-smad.	Mi	adi-kyis	khu p	hag-ko	blta-pa	khu-ri-kyi
chhak- ti	$d\ddot{o}$ - p	o-mä.	Mi	di - $ky\bar{\imath}$	khu p	hak-ko	tä-pa	khu-ri-kyi
joining	live	ed.	\mathbf{Man}	the-by	_	pigs	feed-to	his

zhing-lo btang-bo-smad. Te khu phag-ko 'adi-tshu-gyis za-bai pa-kog za-di shing-lo tang-bo-mä. Tekhu phak-ko di-tshu-yī sa-wai pa-kok sa-difield-to sent. And he the-by pigs eaten husks eating khu-ri-kyi pho 'agang-bar dga-u-smad. M_i ka-gi-yang khu-lo $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ bin. khu-ri-kyi pho kang-war Miga-u-mä. ka-gi-yang khu-lomaphin. his belly filling-for glad-was. Man anyone him-to gave. O-'adi-las khu dran-gso-di lded lab-po-smad, 'ngai a-pa-i gla-thob-pa-i \hat{A} -di- $l\ddot{a}$ khutan-so-di delap-po-mä, 'nga-i a- $p\alpha$ -ila-thop-pa-i That-from he sense-recovering thus said, 'my father-of wages-getting gyog-ku o-dzod-lo mang-po bza-she yod-po-lo bzhag-she yang yod. Ngayok-ku mang-po o-dzö-lo yö-po-lo sa-she shak-she yang yö. Ngaservants many so-many-to eat-to being-in save-to also is. Ι longs-di sku-mdun-lo ltogs-di shi-do. Nga nga-i a-pa-i song-di lded tok-dishi-do. Ngalong-dinga-ia-pa-iku-dün-lo song-didehungering die. risen-having me-offather-of presence-to gone-having zhu-she-vin, "a-po, nga-kyis nam-mkha chhod-kyi dang sku-mdun-lo sdig-ko " a-po, $nga-k\bar{\imath}$ chhö-kyi shu-she-in, nam-kha tang ku-dün-lo dik-ko say-will, "father, me-by \mathbf{and} thee-of presence-in \sin be-u-yin. Da-las-pha chhod-kvi lab hu os-po med. Nga_ chhod-kvi be-u-in. Ta-lä-pha chhö-kyi lappuö-po me. Ngachhö-kyi done-is. Now-from thy son worthy not. say Methy bed-bchug."; gyog-ku 'adrau O-'adi-las gla-thob-pai gchig khu longs-di yok-ku chibe-chuk." la-thop-pa-i tauÂ-di-lä khulong-di like make." servant one wages-getting That-from arising khu-ri-kyi a-pa-i rtsa-losong-bo-smad. Yin-rung a-pa-kyis khu thag-ring-lo khu-ri-kyi a-pa-i<u>ts</u>a-lo song-bo-mä. Yin-rung a-pa- \bar{i} khuthak-ring-lo father-of near went. But father-by himdistance-at mthong-di stig-chhi-di (sic.) mchhongs-song-di ong-bo khu-kyi ske-lo pham-btab. ong-bo thong-di tik-chhi-di chhong-song-di khu-i ke-lo pham-tupseen-having pitying coming run-gone-having his neck-on embrace-struckskyeu-smad. dikhu ${
m Te}$ bu-kyis khu-lo zhu-u-smad, 'a-po, nga-kyis dikhu kye-u-mä. Tepu- $ky\bar{\imath}$ khu-lo shu-u-mä, 'a-po, $nga-k\bar{\imath}$ having kissed. him son-by him-to said, father, me-by dang chhod-kvi sku-mdun-lo nam-mkha sdig-ko be-u-vin. Da-las-pha chhod-kyi chhö-kyi tang ku-dün-lo nam-kha dik-ko be-u-in. Ta-lä-pha chhö-kyi heaven and thee-of before \sin done-is. Now-from thy bu lab os-po med.' Yin-rung a-po 'adi-kvis khu-ri-kyi gyog-ko-tshu-lo me. Yin-rung ö-po pulap a-po di-kyī khu-ri-kyi yok-ko-tshu-lo worthy not-am.' Lut father to-say the-by his servants-to 'go-lag gsungs-bo-smad, thams-chad-las 'abag-shog, lem khu-lo gon-bin: sung-bo-mä, 'ko-lak tham-chä-lä lem bak-shok, khu-lo kön-bin; called, 'cloth all-from good bring, him-to put-on; mdzug-rkyi lag-ka-lo gchig dang rkang-pa-lo lham gon-bin. Te nga-chag dzuk-kyi lak-ka-lo chitangkang-pa-lo lham kön-bin. Te. nga-cha hand-on ring one and feet-on shoen put. And we

sems-skyid-po bya-ge; nga-i 'adi shi-di, za-di bu log gson-po zam yin; sem-kyi-po bya-ge; dishi-di, sa-di nga-ipuloksö-po samuin: mind-merry make-should; died-having, eating my son this again alive food is; song-di thob-po-yin.' Te be'ang log khong-tshu skyid-po kho bed-nvi thop-po-in.' Tekho beang song-dilokkhong-tshu kyi-po be-nyi found-is. lost gone-having again And they merry make-to he mgo-btsugs-ko-yin.

go-<u>dz</u>uk-ko-in.

khu-kyi O-di-tshi bu rgan-po zhing-lo yod-po-smad. Khu ongs-di \hat{A} -di-tshi khu-ipukan-po shing-lo yö-po-mä. Khu ong-di elder field-in Now his son was. He coming bslebs-po khu-kyis sgra-snyan khyim-gyi bo-log dang dang 'achham-rkyab-po khim-ki bo-lok lep-po tangkhu-yī gra-nyan tang chham-kyap-po him-by sound-well-sounding house-of near-back coming with and dance-making gchig tho-po-yin. Te khu-kyis gyog-ku nang-las bo-di, ''adi-kyi don Tekhu-yī yok-ku nang-lä chibo-di, 'di-kyi tho-po-in. And him-by servants in-from calling, 'this-of meaning heard. one dri-u-smad. ${
m Te}$ khu-kyis khu-lo lab-po-smad, 'chhod-kyi nu-bo gam-mo?' kam-mo? ti-u-mä. Tekhu-yī khu-lo lap-po-mä, 'chhö-kyi nu-wo what-is? asked. him-by him-to said, thy younger-brother te chhod-kyi a-pa-kyis khu-lo gzugs-bzang-po thob-pa-i don-lo ngs-bo-yin, techhö-kyi a-pa- $ky\bar{\imath}$ khu-lo zuk-zang-po thop-pa-i tön-lo ong-bo-in, father-by and thy him-to body-good found-being-of account-on come-is, gchig btang-bo-yin. Te khu rtsig-ko za-di nang-sha rgyu-nyi ma mgron khuchitang-bo-in. Tetsik-ko sa-dinang-sha ton gyu-nyi ma given-is.' feast one And he anger eating inside go-to not O-'adi-kyi don-lo ongs-di khu-lo khu-kyi pang-kha dga-u-smad. a-po ga-u-mä. \hat{A} -di-kyitön-lo khu-yi pang-kha ong-di khu-lo a-po wished. That-of account-on his father outside coming him-to khu-kyis Telhu-u-smad. lan-btab-di khu-ri-kyi a-pa-lo zhu-u-smad, Telhu-u-mä. khu- $y\bar{\imath}$ län-tap-di khu-ri-kyi a-pa-lo shu-u-mä, And father-to said, entreated. him-by answering his chhod-lo zhabs-phyi lo mang-po 'adi-dzod-chig nga-kyis 'gzigs-dang, shap-phyi lodi-dzö-chi nga-kī chhö-lo 'zik-tang, mang-po servant years many so-much me-by vou-to 'lo. Yin-rung-sum-po nga-kyis chhod-kyi bka nam-mo mang-ge. zhu-u-yin; Yin-rung-sum-po shu-u-yin; nga-kī chhö-kyi kanam-mo mang-gä. Yet. me-by your word not-transgressed. worked; ever chhod-kyis nga-lo nga-ri-kyi rogs-ku-tshu mnyam-po skyid-po be-ba-i don-lo chhö-kyī nga-lo rok-ku-<u>ts</u>hu tön-lo nyam-po kyi-po be-wu-inga-ri-kyi you-by me-to friends with merry making-of sake-for my 'adi chhem-tshu gchig nam-mo gnang. Yin-rung chhod-kyi bu ra-gu $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ dichhem-tshu nam-mo chho-kyi puchima nang. Yin-rung ra-gu this harlots But 80D ever not gave. your kid

dang chhod-kyi 'atsho-chhas za-di \log ongs-bo chhod-kyis mgron da-ra tang chhö-kyi tsho-chhä sa-dilokchhō-kyī ong-bo ta-radon with your living eaten-having back coming immediately you-by feast gchig btang-bo-smad.' $\mathbf{T}\mathbf{e}$ a-pa-kyis bu, chhod khu-lo gsungs-bo-smad, chitang-bo-mä.' Tea-pa- $y\bar{i}$ khu-lo · pu, $chh\ddot{o}$ sung-bo-mä. one given-is.' father-by' And: him-to said, 'son, you ngadangmnyam-po a-tang-ma-chhad yod; thams-chad nga-lo gang yod-po nga tang nyam-po a-tang-ma-chhä yö; nga-lo kang yö•po tham-chä me with together always me-to what being all are; chhod-ri-kyi smad. Nga-chag sems-dga-di bed skyid-po yin. os-po chhö-ri-kyi mä. Nga-cha yin. sem-ga-dikyi-po beö-po yours is. $\mathbf{W}_{\mathbf{e}}$ mind-glad-being merry to-make is. proper Chhod-kyi nu-bo 'adi shi-di, log gson-po yin; be'ang-song-di, log Chhö-kyi nu-wo dishi-di, lok8ö-po yin; beang-song-di, lokYour younger-brother this died-having, again alive is; lost-gone-having, again. thob-po yin.' yin.' found is.'

thop-po

LHOKE OR BHŌŢIĀ OF BHUTAN.

The Tibetan word *lho* means 'south' and also denotes the State of Bhutan. An inhabitant of Bhutan is called *Lho-pa*, and his dialect *Lho-ke*, or probably more correctly *Lho-kä*, classical Tibetan *Lho-skad*, Lho-speech. Another name of Bhutan is *Duk-pa* from Tibetan 'abrug-pa, a sect of Lamas established in Bhutan, and hence Lhoke is sometimes called Dukpa Bhōṭiā.

The Lhoke dialect is a form of Tibetan closely related to that prevailing in Sikkim. Outside the State of Bhutan it has also been reported from some of the districts within the scope of this Survey. During its preliminary operations it was returned from the following districts:—

Darjeeling .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	2,00
Jalpaiguri .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		2,14
Kuch Bihar		•	•	•	•	•	•						13
Sikkim .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	80
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ne correspondir	ıg fi	gures	s at t	he la	ast C	ensus	of I	901	were	as fo	ollow	's :	-
Bengal Presidence	y	•	•	•				•					7,29
Calcutta	•	•	•	•				•				3	
Dinajpur		•			•	•			•			1	
Jalpaiguri			•		•						4.	768	
Darjeeling	•										2.	504	
Tipperah				•								1	
Champaran	•					•		•		•		3	
Bhagalpur				•								3	
Sontal Parga	anas											2	
COURTINIE				_					•			2	
			•										
Kuch Bihar Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•			7	
Kuch Bihar Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	٠	•	•		7	
Kuch Bihar Sikkim Ajmer-Merwara	•	•	•	•	•	•					.	7	
Kuch Bihar Sikkim Ajmer-Merwara Assam	•	•		•		•	•	· ·			· .	7 · · ·	1,65
Kuch Bihar Sikkim Ajmer-Merwara	•				•	· ·					•	- -	

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A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Lhoke have been received from Darjeeling. The remarks on Lhoke grammar which follow are entirely based on them, and their correctness depends on the reliability of the materials.

Pronunciation.—The Lhoke dialect possesses the vowels \ddot{a} , \ddot{o} , and \ddot{u} , i.e., the sounds of ai in 'hair' and of \ddot{v} in German 'bös' and of \ddot{u} in German 'Sünde' respectively. The marking of these sounds is, however, very inconsistent. I have restored them as best I could in the Parable following the indications of the original manuscript. It is, however, very probable that some mistakes have crept in.

Final vowels are often dropped; compare bum, classical bu-mo, daughter; kam, classical skar-ma, star; byap, classical bya-pho, cock. When the final vowel of the suffixes ba, bo, etc., is dropped its initial consonant is usually assimilated to the final consonant of the base in various ways; thus, phab, classical phag-pa, swine; dum, classical rdung-ba, beating; im, classical yin-ba, being; shab, classical bshad-pa, telling, etc.

Soft initial consonants are apparently pronounced with a strong aspiration so that the actual sound is almost that of the corresponding hard consonant. Compare bha, classical ba, cow, in Hodgson's vocabulary; ghyob, classical grod-pa, belly; ghyong, classical grong, village. The soft initials are often preserved in the specimens, or else they are replaced by the corresponding hard sounds; compare bu-tsho, child; zhing, field; tv, classical dus, time.

Final soft consonants are hardened; thus, *chik*, classical *gchig*, one; *lok*, classical *log*, return; *khyot*, classical *khyod*, thou. The soft sound is, however, often retained in writing; thus, *mig*, eye; *geb*, back. This is always the case when a vowel is dropped after the consonant. Compare the examples quoted above.

Final d, n, l, and s modify a preceding a, o, and u, so that they become \ddot{a} , \ddot{o} , and \ddot{u} , respectively. Final s is always, final d commonly, and final l and n sometimes, dropped. Thus, gyet, i.e., $gy\ddot{a}t$, Hodgson gye, classical rgyad, light; $d\ddot{o}t$ and $d\ddot{o}$, classical sdod, sit; $lh\ddot{o}t$, classical lhod, to loose; $th\ddot{o}n$, classical mthon, arise, happen; $h\ddot{u}l$, classical fshun, till; $h\ddot{u}l$ -hun, classical fshun, share; hus-hun, classical fshun, share; hus-hun, classical fshun, classical fshun-fshun, classical fshun-fshun, classical fshun, class

The original vowel sometimes remains unchanged or is followed by an i; thus, go, classical dgos, it is necessary; goym, classical ryod-mo, mare, etc.

Final r is occasionally dropped; thus, sey, classical yser, gold; \underline{tsha} , classical \underline{tshar} , finish.

Compound consonants of which the last component in classical Tibetan is a subscribed y are left unchanged; thus, $khy\ddot{v}t$, classical khyod, thou; $gyu-\underline{ts}han$, classical $rgyu-m\underline{ts}han$, reason; bya, a bird. Y is, however, often dropped before i and e; thus, bili, classical byi-li, cat; be, classical byed, do; geb, classical rgyab, back.

There are also some instances of the change of such compounds into palatals which is so common in connected forms of speech; thus, chhot and khyöt, thou: long-chöt, classical longs-spyod, enjoy.

R after gutturals is replaced by y; with other consonants it coalesces into a cerebral; thus, kya, classical skra, hair; ghyob, classical grod-pa, belly; ghyong, classical

grong, village; dhug, classical drug, six; de, classical 'adre, devil; da, classical 'adra, like; di, classical 'adri, ask; thuk, classical phrugu, young.

Sr remains unchanged; thus, sring-mu, sister.

Zl becomes da; thus, dau, classical zla-ba, moon.

In other compounds the first consonant or consonants are dropped. Compare lang, classical glang, bull; che, classical lche, tongue; zim-pön, classical gzim-dpon, servant; na, classical sna, nose; nang, classical gnang, give; yok, classical gyog, work; kang-pa, classical rkang-pa, foot; zhi, classical bzhi, four, etc.

Article.—The numeral chik, one, is used as an indefinite, and the demonstrative pronouns di, this; de and te, that, as a definite article.

Nouns—Gender.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes such as pho, male; mo and ma, female; thus, lang, bull; ba, cow: pho-khyi, a dog; khyi-mu and mo-khyi, a bitch: ra-pho, a he goat; ra-ma, a she-goat.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is $\underline{ts}u$, classical $\underline{ts}hogs$, multitude; thus, yok-be mi- $\underline{ts}u$, work-doing man-multitude, servants.

Case.—The case suffixes are, broadly, the same as in Dänjongkä; dative lo, lu or la; ablative lä, nä; locative na; terminative r, tu, etc.; genitive kyi, ki, ayi, gi, i, etc. The case of the agent is written like the genitive; the final vowel is probably long. The i of the genitive and agent is sometimes contracted into one sound with a preceding vowel. Compare mi chik-lu, to a man; za-nor-lä, from the property; shi-za-nä, from death's place; khyim-na, in the house; tsa-r, near, to; ap-tsu-gi, of fathers; ser-kyi, of gold; abpai, by the father; bui and bü, by the son.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is the ablative suffix $l\ddot{a}$; thus, khui nuchung di sring-mu di-lä thowat, his brother the sister the-from tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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nga, I khyöt, khyö, chhot, chho, khu, he thou

ngä, by me chhoi, by thee

nga-i, ngä, my khyöt-kyi, khyoi, thy kho-i, khu-i, his

nga-chag, we khyöt-tsho, you khong, khong-tsho, they

nga-chä, nga chagi, our khong-gi, their
```

Other pronouns are di, this; te, de, aphi, that; gag, who? ga-chi, gang-chi, what? and so forth.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is broadly the same as in Danjong-ka.

The verb substantive is formed from the bases in or yin; yot, $y\ddot{o}t$, or $y\ddot{o}$; bet or $b\ddot{a}$, $m\ddot{a}$; wat or $w\ddot{a}$, $p\ddot{a}$. The bases bet, etc., are apparently formed from the suffix ba, pa, etc., by adding id (-yod), which is in its turn dropped after having changed the preceding a to \ddot{a} .

Present time.—A present tense is formed by adding do or do-yin; thus, gyo-do-yin, (I) go; gyo-do, (thou) goest. Do is perhaps contracted from dao; compare nga dum-dao-yin, I am beating. Compare also the verb substantive gda-ba in Khams.

Instead of yin we sometimes find wat added; thus, kho gyo-do-wat, he goes; compare tho-wat, he is tall. Compare Baltī and Ladakhī at.

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The base yot (i.e., $y\ddot{o}t$ or $y\ddot{o}$), is, is also added in order to form a present; thus, dot-yot (i.e., $d\ddot{o}t\text{-}y\ddot{o}t$), he is sitting. It can also be added to a form ending in ni; compare the suffix nyi of the verbal noun in Pänjong-kä. Thus, $za\text{-}ni\text{-}y\ddot{o}t$, they eat.

The base alone is also used as a present; thus, nga dung, I strike.

Past time.—The simple base, or the past base, is commonly used as a past tense; thus, kye, classical skyes, he became; song, he went.

A common past tense is formed by adding various forms of the verb substantive to a verbal noun or participle, which must originally have ended in pa, ba, or wa. The final vowel of this participle is usually dropped, and the initial sound assimilated to the preceding sound in various ways. Compare $nga\ dum$ -yin, I went; be- $u\ yim$ - $p\ddot{a}$, made become-is, has been made; shab- $m\ddot{a}$, said; nyo-yin, boughtest. In the last example the verb substantive is perhaps added directly to the base. The same is the case in forms such as song-yi, went.

The participle alone is used in forms such as di-wa, asked; nang-wa, gave, if the final vowel of such forms is not properly an \ddot{a} .

Song is used as a suffix in tha-song, he became.

Note also compound forms such as dum <u>tsha-di</u> yin, beating having-finished am, I had beaten.

Future.—The common future is formed as in Pänjong-kä by adding yin to a verbal noun ending in ni; thus, dung-ni-yin, I shall strike. The common Tibetan suffix ong is also used; thus, kho dung-ong, he will strike. Nga thä-gyu, I shall be, contains the suffix gyu corresponding to classical Tibetan rgyu, matter, cause.

Imperative.—The base is often used as an imperative; thus, gyo and song, go. Suffixes such as chik, shok, etc., can be added; thus, gyo-chik, go; bak-shok, bring.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, za-rung, eating-though, though he ate. The most common suffix is ba, pa, or wa, which is modified in the usual way. Thus, zhu-u-zhin-tu, saying-according, as he said; tsho-wa, to feed; muge thön-pa tang, famine arising with, when a famine had arisen; im-lä, being-from, because he is; song-wa-i, going-by, when he had gone.

The same form is also used as a relative participle; thus, nga-lu thob-pa-i kälva, me-to getting-of share, the share which I shall get.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding di, te, $n\ddot{a}$, $w\ddot{a}$, etc.; thus, dung-di-gi, having beaten; bak-te, carrying; len- $n\ddot{a}$, taking; song- $w\ddot{a}$, going, etc. Note also zer, saying.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed mi in the present and future, and a prefixed ma in the past and imperative; thus, $zhego\ bin-mi\ mi-n-duk$, food givingman not-is, nobody gives him; mi-go, it is not wanted; $zhum\ ga-ni\ ma-ya$, goodbehaviour any not-did; $\underline{tsib}\ ma\ za$, anger not eat, don't be angry.

Interrogative particle.—The classical form ending in am occurs in gang-chi bedo-yin-nam, what do they do? The characteristic interrogative of the dialect is, however, probably mo; thus, gag-i bu-tshu ong-bo-mo, whose boy coming-is? whose boy is coming? Mo is probably the interrogative verb substantive as in Dänjong-kä, though it is not usual in Tibetan to add interrogative verbs or particles if there is an interrogative pronoun.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 143 and ff. It should be remarked that most of the rules laid down in the preceding pages are subject to exceptions, usually in such a way that the language of Tibetan literature, which is also used in Bhutan by the educated classes, has influenced the writer.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

LHOKE OR BHŌTIĀ OF BHUTAN.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

nyī yö•pä, chhung-ku ab-lu Mi chik-lu bu bu lo-gyu twobeing,son younger the-by father-to Man one-to sons subject nga-lu thob-pai kälwa gob-sha-chab-nang,' 'ab-pai za-nor-lä shab-ma. me-to getting-of portion divide-split-cut-give. having-told, 'father-of property-from lab-zhin-tu kho-rai za-nor kälwa chhung-ku-ki len-nä said-as his-own property shareyounger-by taken-having son -chab-chha-ka bak-te vü thak-ring-sa chik-lu song. tä bum far carried-having country one-to went, then things women nvam-tu dö-te tä za-nor tang chab-chha-ka a-ro-ga-ro-<u>ts</u>u ga-yöt-ra sweethearts with living then property andthings what-was lak-te kho-rang du-thä the-kha-ra me-par ül-po tha-song. not-being there squandered-having heanything poor became. Di-i lung-pa di-kha yang mu-ge thön-pa tang kha-thuk-chab-nä gang-lu This-of meantime-in country this-inalso famine arising with met-having za-wa to kab-pa go me. Τä de-lä kho **y**ü eating foodnot, covering cloth not. Then that-after hecountry gyuk-te zhan-kha yok za-wai song-wä chiki sem-no-te $_{
m mi}$ tsar other work doing eating-of mind-making-up going one-of man near tö-pa tang mi de-i. 'nga-i sa-zbing-kha-lu phab tsho-war song, that-by. staying when 'my field-in-to manpigs feeding-for go,zer-lap-pä, kho phab di-i tsho-war song-wä, tshe kho-kha having-said-told, pigsfeeding-for having-gone, time this-of him-of chok-thak-pa kom-to-kye, be-ma-tshu-par phab sa thirst-hunger-grew, to-put-up-not-able-being-on pigslikeearth man-tshöt-man-pa no-döt-rung kho-lu zhe-go long-nä za-rung bin-mi ate-though unfit-not turning thought-though him-to foodgiver mi-n-duk. Yang kho-rai <u>ts</u>a-lu sem-lu, 'rang-gi a-pai yok-be-mi-tsu not-was. And hismind-in, 'my-own father-of near servants nyin-re-lu nvin-za-tü bab-lhöt-me-pa zhi za-ni-yöt. Ta nga dailyday-food-times neglecting-without feeding-are. Now I four lok-te a-pai song-wai, kho lok-ong-wa tsar gyo-go-pä,' no-te returning father-of near to-go-wanted-is,' back-coming thinking going,

ke-lu dik-chhi-te bu-i bu-lo sem-lu apa-ki thong-te apai neck-on son's pitying mind-in son-to father's father-by seen-having 'ta tshun nam-kha lab-mä, apa-lu di-lä bu-i pham-tab u-kyel. Tä son-by father-to having-said, ' now tillheaven embraced kissed. And then gani ma-va. Ta nga. zhum rang-gi tha-kha-lu tang apai good-behaviour not-did. NowI, myself-by anyand father-of before si-te lab-pä, ngo-vang-tsha,' in." shat "apai zer bu ashamed, saying having-said, to-declare am,""father's sonto-say kho-ra-i zim-pön-lu mi-go,' yang ab-pa-i ab-pa-ki, 'bu ngo-tsha shamefulness not-wanted,' again father-by his-own servant-to father-by, 'son tang sha-mo le-zhib chik, le-zhib chik ser-kyi ʻgo ka-sä nang-wa, goodand hata. gold-of goodgave, 'cloth \boldsymbol{a} order bak-shok.' Ka chik tön-te nang-wa lham-chha dzu-kyi-chha chik, bring.' Ordertaking given shoe-pair finger-ring-pair α, zab-tö-tik-dik-te tä pha-bu yong-nä nyi kap-gö-bä, zhin-tu then father-son two come-having clothed-having put-on-clothed-having, be-go-pai gyu-tshan, bu dishi-sa-nä be-wä: di dzom-pai ga-tsho this dead-place-from made; this making-of reason, sonmeeting-of joyheb-tang da-wo im-lä. biang-sa-lä da-wo; lok-pa-tang lost-place-from found-with being-from. like; likereturning-with

zhing-kha-lä lok-ong-wa-i gang-lu pho-gem te khvim Τä di-i housetime-at brother-elder the field-place-from back-coming Andthat lhö-pa-tang khyim nang-lu lu-ga zhe-ga tsim-tsi-wai bo-lo-kha te-i coming-when house within singing dancing playing-of near the-of khyim-tsang-mi chik-lu pho-gem te-i di-wa, 'khyim go-nä wur-da neighbourelder-brother the-by one-to asked, 'house hearing noisebe-do-yin-nam?' 'khyo-rai zer-wä, nu-wo-chung te gang-chi nang doing-are? having-said, 'your-own younger-brother what the inlok-lhö-pai ga-<u>ts</u>hor-zhi-len be-u yim-pä,' zer-shat pä, khyim nang back-coming-of joy-feast madeis.' having-said, thereupon house tsib za-nä khyim nang $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ tub-par te 270 pho-gem the angereating houseinto to-go notwilling-being elder-brother khyim döt-tang-wä, ab te nang-lä ong-te bu gan-pa-i lak-pa-lä having-remained, father the housefromcoming elder-of sonhand-bu khyim nang zer-lap-pä, 'khyöt tsib-ma-za; gyo-chik, zung-nä, bü, anger-not-eat; house intohaving-said-told, son-by, 'you go,seizing, apa-i tha-kha sem-ma-set-pa-lu 'ta-tshün. ga-tä dak-dak father-of againstmind-not-offending-in ' now-till in-every-way bestnga-i bä-bin-rung, to-tshang ga-thün-<u>ts</u>u "dza-chum tang, chik doing-giving-though, friends mycompanions with, "feast one

za-chik," ra-thuk be-te zer chik yang lo-ma-pho. eat," saying goat-young making oneeven were-not-pleased-to-give. Tha-re-bä-tshe kh**y**öt-kyi \mathbf{bu} za-nor chab-chha-ka mang-rab-zhig But-now your son property things many zhang-tshong-ma tang nyam-tu döt-te lak, ta-rung kho ngo-<u>ts</u>ha-nö harlots withtogether living wasted, andshamefulness met-pa lok-ong-wa tsam-lu zhe-go mang-rab phang-sem me-pa lak without back-coming whenfeast greatfrugallly withoutspent tön-me.' go-pa-i Apa bu di-i lan-lu, 'bu, khyöt necessity-of cause-without.' Father son the-of answer-in, son, you a-tang nga tang chha-te döt-pa-lä nga-i za-nor yöt-tshat khye-rai me with being-attached living-from my property allyour-own Khyo-rang ga-tä ga-ga be-te long-chöt. Khyöt-kyi nu-wo-chung is.Yourself in-any-way merry making feast. Your younger-brother te shi-sa-lä lob-tang da-wo; biang-sa-lä heb-tang da-wä. dead-place-from returned-with like-is; lost-place-from found-with thelike-is. Ta-lä khyö-rang pün-chha-tsu chham-tok-tok be-te döt' Now-from onward you brothersfriendship doing live?

KHAMS DIALECT.

The eastern division of Tibet, between the province of Ü and China, is known as Khams or Khams-yul. It extends from the frontier of China to about 95° east longitude. We are not sufficiently informed about the dialect spoken in Khams, and it does not fall within the scope of this Survey. It is, however, of considerable interest and it will therefore be useful to collect some information about it in this place. The Rev. H. A. Jaeschke has long ago published a short specimen which will be reproduced below.

AUTHORITIES-

The Khams dialect in two important points agrees with Western as against Central Tibetan. There is no tone system and the various compound consonants are not so generally simplified as in Central Tibetan.

Phonology.—The vowels i and u are changed to e and \ddot{o} , respectively; thus, teb-rel, classical tib-ril, tea-pot; $w\ddot{o}$, classical bu, son.

The two vowels $\[mathbb{S}\]$ a, and $\[mathbb{Q}\]$ 'a are distinguished in Khams. The former is the vowel a pronounced with the audible opening of the throat which is indicated by means of the spiritus lenis in Greek and the Hamza in Arabic. 'A is the mere vowel without that audible opening. In Khams it has developed into a gh, the soft sound corresponding to the hard ch in German 'doch'; thus, ghar-po, classical 'ar-po, angry; ghug-pa, classical 'ug-pa, owl; gho-ma, classical 'o-ma, milk; ghod, classical 'od, light, and so forth.

The pure vowel 'a is often used as a prefix before consonants. In such cases it has developed into the nasal corresponding to the following consonant; thus, ngkhol-ba, classical 'akhol-ba, to boil; nggul-wa, classical 'agul-ba, to move; nychham-pa, classical 'achham-pa, to agree; ndod-pa, classical 'adod-pa, to like; mphur-wa, classical 'aphur-ba, to fly, etc.

The vowels of the base are sometimes modified by a following consonant, not however to the same extent as in Central Tibetan.

U becomes \ddot{u} before d and n; thus, $l\ddot{u}d$, classical lud, manure; $k\ddot{u}n$, classical kun, all.

 \mathcal{A} is changed to e before ng; thus, kheng-pa, classical khang-pa, house.

Before s, a is changed to e, o to \ddot{o} , and u to \ddot{u} . Final s is dropped and the vowel lengthened; thus, $kh\bar{e}$, classical khas, with the mouth; $g\ddot{o}$, classical gos, cloth; $d\ddot{u}$, classical dus, time.

Initial non-compound consonants are mostly left unchanged. The initial b of classical Tibetan is, however, changed to w; thus, wa, classical ba, cow; $w\ddot{o}$, classical bu, son; $w\ddot{o}$ -mo, classical bu-mo, daughter.

Final s is always dropped, and the preceding vowel is lengthened; thus, $r\bar{\imath}$, classical ris, form; $g\bar{u}$, classical gus, respect. If s is preceded by a consonant, the preceding vowel is

only lengthened if the consonant in question is a g; thus, $n\bar{a}g$, classical nags, forest; $r\bar{\imath}g$, classical rigs, class; but pheb, classical phebs, came; tham-chad, classical thams-chad, all.

Compound consonants ending in a subscribed y in the literary dialect are left unchanged if the first consonant is a guttural, and become palatals if it is a labial; thus, kyeng, classical kyang, even; khye, classical khyi, dog; gyon-pa, to wear; chhag, classical phyag, hand, etc. By also becomes wsh.

Mute consonants and r become cerebrals; sr is replaced by the original str, and hr becomes shr; thus, them, classical khrims, right; $th\ddot{u}$, classical khrus, bath; don-mo, classical dron-mo, warm; $th\ddot{o}-g\ddot{o}$, classical phrugu, child; string-mo, classical sring-mo, sister; shrul-po, classical hrul-po, rags.

Compounds ending in l are treated in different ways. Gl is changed to ghl; bl to wl; zl becomes ld, and rl and sl remain unchanged. Thus, ghlog, classical glog, lightning; wla-ma, classical bla-ma, a Lama; lda-wa, classical zla-ba, moon; rleng-pa, classical rlangs-pa, vapour, steam; sla-mo, thin.

The prefixed r, l, and s remain unchanged; thus, rkeng-pa, elassical rkang-pa, foot; rnga, drum; rta, horse; lnga, five; ltad-mo, a sight; sna, nose.

Skr becomes shtr; sgr becomes zdr; spy becomes shw; spr becomes shtr; sb and sby become zu; sbr becomes d; smr becomes shn, and so forth. Thus, shtra, classical skra, hair; zdra, classical sgra, sound; shwod-pa, classical spyod-pa, action; shtre-gho, classical spreu, monkey; zual-wa, classical sbal-ba, frog; zuar-wa, classical sbyar-ba, to fasten; däng-wo, classical sbrang-bu, fly; shna-wa, classical smra-ba, to say.

A prefixed g becomes gh; the same is the case with the prefixed d; db becomes ghw, or w if a u follows; a prefixed b becomes v or b; and a prefixed m remains unchanged. Thus, ghdung-wa, classical gdung-ba, desire; ghser, classical gser, gold; ghyog-po and yog-po, classical gyog-po, a servant; ghkar-po, classical ghar-ghar, white; ghngul, classical ghar, silver; ghweng, classical ghar, might: $w\ddot{o}$, classical ghar, head; ghar, classical ghar, breath; $ghw\ddot{o}l$ -ghar, classical ghar, poor; ghar, classical ghar, to put on; ghar, classical ghar, elassical ghar, classical ghar, to envelop; ghar, head, etc. Note ghar, classical ghar, spring.

For further details the student is referred to the short specimen which follows. It has been reprinted from the Rev. H. A. Jaeschke's paper mentioned above. The stress has been marked by means of a 'over the accented syllable.

[No. 16.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

TIBETAN.

KHAMS DIALECT.

(H. A. Jaeschke, 1866.)

Dé-skad wdág-gī thö-pa. Dū chig-na Wehom-ldan-då Nyan-vód-na This-word myself-by heard.Timeone-in the-Exalted-one Šrāvastī-in Rgyál-wö-rgyal-jéd-kye-tshal Nggon-med-zä-zwén-gye kün-ghga-rá-wa-na wzhug-so. Anāthapindada's Jétavana pleasure-grove-in lived.chhén-po mkhä-pa Dī-<u>ts</u>hé rgyál-po Ghsal-rgyál-la wlón-po rig-pa deng $\pmb{That\text{-}time}$ Prasēnajit-to kingminister greatgreatknowledge withldán-pa yód-de, ${
m d}{f i}$ chhung-ma sém-chan zhig deng ldán-par gyúr-nä possessed onebeing, hiswifechildwithbe-tocoming khyeu ldan-pa wshad-ghzúg mtshan deng lág-pa ghpe-wshád childwithshape-good marks possessed goodsecondary-marks ldá-med-pa zhig b<u>ts</u>hä-te, mtshan-mkhan wö-nä wö wstán-pa incomparable onehaving-been-born, astrologer called-having sonshowing mtshan-mkhan-gyī ghgá-wē mdang-kyi dé-skad chishnä-so. onastrologer-by look-with happythis-word said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Thus I have heard. The Blessed one was once staying at Śrāvastī, in the Jētavana, in Anāthapindada's pleasaunce. Now at that time King Prasēnajit had a prime minister of great knowledge. His wife became with child, and a son was born who possessed all the lucky marks, great beauty, and all the secondary lucky marks. An astrologer was summoned, and when the child had been shown to him, he said with a happy look.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TIBETAN LANGUAGE.

VOL. III, PART I.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

Engl	ish.		ļ	Bal	t i (Ba	ltistān).		-	Purik (Pu	ırik).		Ladākhī (Ladakh).				
1. One .	•	•	-	Chik	•			•	Chik .	•		Chik				
2. Two .		•	•	Nyīs	•			•	Nyis .	•	•	. Nyis				
3. Three	•		•	Sum	•	•			Sum .	•	•	Sum				
4. Four .		•	•	Ibzhi	•	•		-	Zhbī, sb y ī	•	•	. Zhi				
5. Five .	•		• .	<u>G</u> hā	a			•	<u>G</u> hā .	•	•	. Shnga; rga; gha .				
6. Six •	•			Truk			•	•	Truk .	•	•	Druk; ruk				
7. Seven	•	•	•	Rdun	•	•	•	•	Rdun .	•	ė.	Rdun				
8. Eight	•	•	•	Rgyat		•		•	Rgyat .		•	. Rgyat				
9. Nine .	•		•	Rgu	•	•	•	-	Rgű .	•		Rgu				
10. Ten •		٠		Schū	•	•	•	•	Schū .	•	•	Schu				
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Nyishū	•	•		•	Nyī-shū .	•	•	. Nyi-shu				
12. Fifty	•	•	•	<u>Gh</u> afchū			•	•	\underline{G} hapch $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$	•	•	. Ngapehu				
13. Hundred	•		•	Rgyā	•	•		•	Rgiā .	•		Rgya				
14. I .		٠		Ngā	•	•	•	•	Ngā .	•	•	. Nga				
15. Of me	•	•	•	Ngi	•	•	•	•	Nga-ri, ngi	•	•	. Ngai, ngä				
16. Mine .	•	•	•	Ngi	•	•	•	٠	Nga-rī, ngī	•	•	. Ngai, ngã				
17. We .	•	•		Nga-yā		•	•	•	Nga-chā, nga-	tang	•	. Nga-zha; nga-tang				
18. Of us.	•	•		Nga-yē		•	•	•	Ngitī, nga-chi	•	•	. Nga-zhä; nga-tang-ngi				
19. Our .	•	•		. Nga-yē	٠	•	•	•	Ngitī, nga-chī	•	•	. Nga-zhä; nga-tang-ngi				
20. Thou.	•	•		Khiang	•	•	•	٠	Khye-rang, kh	ıyot	•	. Khyot; khyo-rang .				
21. Of thee	•	•		. Khye-ri	•	•	•	•	Khye-ri .	•	•	. Khyo-rang-ngi; khyod-di				
22. Thine	•	•		. Khye-ri	•	•	•	•	Khye-ri .	•	•	. Khyo-rang-gi; khyod-di				
23. You .	•	•		Khye-ta	ing	•	•		Khyen-tang	•	•	. Khyo-zha				
24. Of you	•	r		. Khye-tī	•	•	•	•	Khyen-ti	•	•	Khyo-zhä				
25. Your .	•	•		. Khye-ta	ang-i,	, khye-t	ĭ		Khyen-tī.	•	•	. Khyo-zhä				

	Centr	al Dial	lect (S	and	berg and H	enders	on).		
	Write	ten.				Spo	ken.		
Gchig	•	•	•	•	Chik	•	•	•	•
Gnyis	•	•	•	•	Nyī	•	•	•	•
Gsum	•	•	•	•	Sum		•	•	٠
Bzhi .	•	•	•	•	Shi	•	•	•	•
Lnga.	•	•		•	Ngā	•	•	•	•
Drug	•	•	•	•	Dhuk	• •	•	•	
Bdun .	•	•	•	•	Dün	•	•	•	•
Brgyad .	•	•	•	•	Gyä	•		•	
Dgu .	•	•		•	Gu	•		•	•
Behu .		•	•		Chu-thar	nba	•	•	•
Nyi-shu .	•	•	•	•	Nyi-shu	•	•	•	•
Lnga-bchu	ι ,	•	•	•	Ngap-cht	ı-thai	mba.	•	•
Brgya .		•	•	•	Gya-than	nba.	•	•	•
Nga .		•	•	•	Nga	•	•	•	•
Nga-i .		•	•	•	Ngä		•	•	•
Nga-i .	•	•		•	Ngä	•	•	•	
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho	•	•	•	•	Nga- <u>ts</u> ho	; ng	an- <u>ts</u> h	0	•
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho-i		•	•	•	Nga- <u>ts</u> ho	-i	•	•	•
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho-i		•	•	•	Nga-tsho	-i	•	•	•
Khyod; kl	ayed		•	•	Kkyö; kl	hye	•	•	•
Khyod-kyi	i,	•	•	•	Khyö-kyi		•	•	ŧ
Khyod-kyi	i ,	•	•	۲.	Khyö-kyi	i	•	•	
Khyed- <u>ts</u> ho	о ,	•	•	•	Khye-tsh	o]; k]	hye n- i	aho	
Khyed- <u>ts</u> h	o-i ,	•	•	•	Khye-tsh	0-i	•	•	
Khyed- <u>ts</u> h	o-i .	•	•	•	Khye- <u>ts</u> h	o-i	•	•	-

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	Spiti	(Spiti)).		Kāgate (I	Oarjeel	ing).	
Chig	•	•	•		Chik .	•		•
Nyi			•	•	Nyī .	•	•	•
Sum			•	•	Sum .	•	•	•
Shi		•	•	•	Tshi	• ,	•	•
Nga	•	•	•	•	Nga.	•	•	•
Puk	•	•	•	٠	Ţuk .		•	•
Dun	•	•	•	•	Tin .	•	•	
Gyat	•	•	•	-	Ке	•	•	•
Gu.	•	٠	•		Gu .	•	•	•
Chu	•	•	•	•	Chu .	•	•	\cdot
Nyishu	•	•	•	•	Nyi-shu .	•	•	•
Ngapch	a.	•	•	•	Ngapchu.	•	•	-
Gya	•	•	•		Gya thamba	•	•	•
Ngă			•	•	Nga .	•	•	•
Ngã		•	•	•	Nga-i-di .	•	•	•
Ngā	•	•	•	•	Nga-i-di .	•	•	•
Nga-zha	•		•		Ngi-kya .	•	•	•
Nga-zhä	•		•	•	Ngi-kye-i-di	•	•	•
Nga-zhä	•	•	•	•	Ngi-rang-kye-	-i-di	•	•
Khyut	•	•	•	•	Khyo .	•	•	•
Khyoi	•	•	•	•	Khyo-i-di	•	•	•
Khyoi			•	•	Khyo-i-di	•	•	•
Khyo-zh	a	•		•	Khyo-rang	•	•	
Khyo-zh	ä	•	•	•	Khyo-rang-i	•		
Khyo-zh	ä		•	•	Khyo-rang-i	•	•	•

IN THE DIALECTS OF THE TIBETAN LANGUAGE.

Sha	arpa (Darje	eling).		, Ņái	ijongk	ä (San	dberg).	•	I	hoke (Darje	eling).		English.
Chik		•	•		. Chi	,	,	•	•	Chik	•	•	•	•	1. One.
Nyi	•	•	•		Nyi	•	•	•	•	Nyi		•			2. Two.
Sum	•	•	•		Sum	•	•		•	Sum	•		•		3. Three.
Shi	•	•	•		Zhi	•	•	•		Zhi	•				4. Four.
Nga	•	•	•		. Nga		•		•	Nga	•	٠	•		5. Five.
Ţuk	•	•	•	•	Ţuk	•	•	•		Dhuk	•	٠	•	•	6. Six.
Dun	•	•	•		Duin		•	•	ı	Dun			•	•	7. Seven.
G ye	•	•	•	•	Gye	•	•	•	•	Gyet			•	•	8. Eight.
Gu	•	•	•	•	Gu	•		•		Gu		•	•		9. Nine.
Chu	•		•	•	Chu·tha	mb a	•	•	•	Chu-tha	mba			• '	10. Ten.
Nyishu;	khal	l-jik	•	•	Khe-chil	Σ.	•	•		Nyi-shu	-tham	.ba		•	11. Twenty.
Nga-chu		•	•		Ngabchu	L	•	•	•	Nga-chu	ı-than	ıba		•	12. Fifty.
Gya	•	•	-	•	Gya	•	•	•	•	Gya-tha:	mba	•	•	•	13. Hundred.
Nga	•		•	•	Nga	•	•	•	• .	Nga	•	•		.!	14. I.
Nga-yi		•	•	•	Nge	•	•	•	. :	Nga-yi	•			•	15. Of me.
Nga-yi	•	•	•	•	Nge		•	•	•]	Nga-yi	•		•		16. Mine.
)ak-pu	•	•	•	•	Nga-cha		•	•	. 2	Nga-chal	ž		•		17. We.
Oak-pu- y	i	•	•	٠	Nga-chi	•		•	. 3	Vga-chä	•				18. Of as.
ak-pu-y	i	•	•	٠	Nga-chi	•	•	•	.)	ga-ch a g	gi			•	19. Our.
hyot	•	•	•		Chhö	•		-	· K	hyot			•	. ! :	20. Thou.
hyot-ran	ı g- gi	•	•	•	Chhö-kyi		•	•	. K	hyot-ky	i	•	•	. , ;	21. Of thee.
hyot-ran	ıg-gi		•		Chhö-k y i		•	•	. K	h y ot-ky	i				22. Thine.
hyot-ran	g	•	•		Chhö .		•		. K	lıyot .		•	•	. 2	3. You.
hyot-ran	g-gi		•	•	Chhö-k yi		•	•	K	hyot-kyi	i .		•	. 2	4. Of you.
hyot-ran	g-gi	•	•	-	Chhö-kyi.		•	•	. KI	h y ot-kyi				$egin{array}{c} dash \ dash \end{array}$	5. Your.

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).			
2 6. He	Кыб	Кьо	Kho			
27. Of him	Khō-ī	Khu-rī, khō-ī	Khoi			
28. His	Кһō-і	Khu-rī, khō-ī	Khoi			
29. The y	Khong, khō-tang	Khong, khon-tang	Kho-gun			
30. Of them	Khong-ī, khô-tang-i	Khong-i, khon-tang-i. khun- ti.	Kho-gun-ni			
31. Their	Khong-ī, khō-tang-ī	Khong-ī, khon-tang-ī. khun-tī.	Kho-gun-ni			
32. Hand	Lak-pa	Lakpa	Lak-pa			
33. Foot	Rkang-ma	Rkang-ma	Rkang-pa			
34. Nose	Snam- <u>ts</u> h u l	Snam- <u>ts</u> hul	Sna			
35. Eye	Mik	Mík	Mik			
36. Mouth	Khā: khā-kor	Khā	Kha			
37. Tooth	S5	Sō	So; so-ga			
38. Ear	Snā	Snā	Nam-chhok			
3 9. Hair . ,	Gō-r ^c al	Skrā	Spu, shra			
4 0. Head	Gō	Gō	Go			
41. Tongue	Lchē	Lchē	Lche			
4 2. Belly	Ltō-a	Ltō-a	Drot-pa; phoa			
43. Back	Shul	Rgyap	Rgyap			
44. Iron	Leha <u>kh</u> s	Lcha <u>kh</u> s	Lchaks			
45. Gold . ?	Ser	Ser	Ser			
46. Silver	Shmul	Shmul	Shmul; mul			
47. Father	Atā	Atā	A-ba			
4 8. Mother	Αmō	Amā	А-та			
49. Brother • • •	Kakā (elder); phono (younger).	Phō-nō	A-jo (elder); no (younger); ming-po (brother of a female person).			
50. Sister • • •	String-mö; ashē (elder); string-mö tsun-tsē (young- er.)	String-mō, a-chē (elder), nō-mō (younger).	A-chhe, a-je (elder); no-mo (younger); sring-mo (sister of a male person).			
51. Man	Mi	Mi	Mi			
52. Woman	Bústri ng	Вō-mō	Во-то			

	Central	Dialect ((Sxulberg and Henderson).	
	Written.		Spoken.	
Kho.	• • • •		Kho	•
Kho-i			. Kho-i	
Kho-i	• - • •	•	. Kho-i	
Khong-	tsho .	•	. Khong- <u>ts</u> ho	•
.Khong-	tsho-i .	•	. Khong-tsho-i	
Khong-	sho-i .	•	.Khong-tsho-i	
Lag-pa	• , • ,	•	. Lak-pa	-
Rkang-p	oa	•	. Kang-pa	•
Sna	• • • •	•	. Na-khung	•
Mig .	• • • •	• ·	. Mik ·	
Kha.		•	. Kha	•
So .		• •	. So	•
Rna.		•	Namehhok	
.Skra .	• • • •	• *	. Та	•
Mgo .	• • • •	• • •	. Go	
Lche.	•.* • •	•	. Che	$\cdot \Big $
·Grod-pa	• • • •	•	. Dhö-pa	
Rgyab		•	Gyap	• •
Lchags	• • • •	•	. Chak; chā	
Gser.	• •	•	. Ser ·	•
Dngul .	• • •	•	. ·Ngül	
Pha; yab		•	. A-pha; yap	
Ма	• •		. Ma	
(younger	7).		·A-jho; nu-wo	
24 mo (;	a-chhe (younger).	$m{s}lder)$;	Sing-mo; a-c he; nu-mo.	
Mi .	•	• .	. Мі	
$\operatorname{Bud-med}$	•		Bhü-me	
				Į.

-	Spiti	(Spiti).			Kāga	te (Da	arjeeli	ng).	
Kho .	•	•	•	• •	Kho	•	•	•	•
Khoi	•	•	•	•	Kho-di	•	•	•	•
Khoi	•	•	•	•	Khodi	•	•	•	
Kho-ba		•	•	•	Khung-k	ya	•	•	•
Kho-bä	•	•	•	•	Khu-rang	g-rang	3	٠	•
Kho-bä	•	•	٠		Khung-k	ei-di	•	•	
Lak-pa	•	•	•	•	Lak-pa	•	•	•	•
Kang-p	a .	•	•	•	Kang-ba		•	•	•
Na	•	•	•	•	Na-sum	•	•	•	•
Mik	•	•	•		Mi.,	•	•	•	•
Kha	•	•	•	•	Kha	•	•	•	
So .	•	•	•	.	So .	•	•	•	
Nam-ch	o k	•	•	•	Nam-jo	•	•	•	•
Sha	٠	•	•	•	Та.	•	•	•	•
Go	•	•	•	•	Go.	•	•	•	
Che	•	•	•	•	Che	•	•	•	•
Dot-pa	•	•	•	•	То-ра	•	•	•	•
Gyap	•	•	•	•	Куар	•	•	•	•
Chaks	•	•	•	•	Cha	•	•	•	•
Ser	•	•	•	•	Ser	•	•	•	•
Ngul	•	•	•		Ngul	•	•	•	•
A-pha	•	•	•	•	A-ba	•	•	•	•
A-ma	•	•	•	•	A-ma	•	•	•	•
A-cho	•	•	•	•	No	•	•	•	•
Shring	-mo	•	•		Nu-mu	•	•	•	•
Mi	•	•	•		Mi.	•	•	•	
Bo-mo	•	•	•	•	Pemi	•	•	٠	
146	—Tik	not a n							l

Sharpa	(Darje	eling).		, Panj	jongka ((Sandbe	rg).		Lhoke	(Darje	eling).		English.
Kho .	٠	•		Kho	•	•	•	. Kho	•	•	•		26. He.
Kho-yi .	•	•		Kho-i			•	. Khoyi	•	•	•		27. Of him.
Kho-yi .	•	•	•	Kho-i	•		•	. Kho yi				•	28. His.
Kho- <u>ts</u> ho	•	•	•	Khong;	kho-c	ha.	•	Khong			•		. 29. They.
Kho- <u>ts</u> ho -y i	•		•	Khong-k	yi	•	•	Khong	-gi				30. Of them.
Kho- <u>ts</u> ho-yi	•	•		Khong-k	yi.	• ,	•	Khong	-gi	•	•	•	31. Their.
Lak-pa .	•	•	•	Lak-ka	•	•	•	, Lak-pa	٠.	•		•	32. Hand.
Kang-pa	•	•		Kang-pa		•	•	Kang-1	p a		•		33. Foot.
Na-khuk	•	•	•	Na	•	•	•	Na.	•				34. Nose.
Mik .	•	•		Mi-do		• .	•	Mik		•		•	35. Eye.
Kha .	•	•	•	Kha	•	• ,	• ,	Kha		•	•	•	36. Mouth.
So	•	•	•	So .				So .	•	•	•		37. Tooth.
Na	•	•		Nam-cho				Namch	o k ; r	awa	•		38. Ear,
Га	•	•	•	Kya	•	• •	•	Kya	•		•	•	39. Hair.
Go	•	•	• 1	Go	• ,			Gu	•	•	•	•	40. Head.
Che-lak .	•	•	•	Che	•			Che			•		41. Tongue.
Khok-pa.		•	• ;	To-ko		•		Ghyop		•		•	42. Belly.
Буар .	•	•	•	Gyap		•	•	Gep		•	•	• !	43. Back.
Cha .	•	•	•	Chak		•	•	Cha				•	44. Iron.
er .	•	•	•	Ser .				Sey	•				45. Gold.
īgui .	•	•	• .	Ngü .	•	•		Ngü	د	•	•	•	46. Silver.
apa .	•	•	•	A-pho .		•	•	Аp			•	•	47. Father.
-ma .	•	•		A-mo .		•	•	Ayi	3	•	•	•	48. Mother.
an .	•	•	•	A-cho (e (younger	elder);	p ü n	ı-gya	Pünchha				•	49. Brother.
ji (elde r) ; er).	nu-mo	(youn	1g-	-	•	n (<i>you</i> :	nger)	Azhim	•	•	•	•	50. Sister.
li .		•	•	MF.	٠	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	-	51. Man.
er-me .	•	•	•	Mobi .		•	•	Am <u>ts</u> u		•	•		52. Woman.

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	$\operatorname{Lip}[ar{a}k](f Lidak^{b})$
53. Wife	Zanzos; chhug-mā	A-nē · · ·	A-ne
54. Child	Phrú	Phrū	Thru-gu
55. Son	Bû, bā- <u>ts</u> hā		Bu- <u>t-</u> ha
56 Daughter	Bō-ngō	Вō-mō	Во-но
57. Slave	. Byīs-ba; sgō-yāl	Yok-pō ; sgō-yal	(±h -yal, yok-po
58. Cultivator	. Chhun-pa	Chhun-pa	Zhing-pa; zhing-dak .
59. Shepherd	. Lurzī, luk-rzī	Ra-rzī, luk-rzī	R <u>lz</u> i-o; luk-r <u>lz</u> i
6 0. God	Khudā	Khudā	Kon-chhok
61. Devil	Shētān	Shētān	Rdut
62. Sun	. Nyī-ma	Nyi-ma	Nyi-ma
63. Moon	. Lzôd, ldzôd (=moon-light)	Lzaï-mō	Lda-va
64. Star	. Skar-ma	Skar-ma	Skar-ma
65. Fire	. Ме	Mē	. Ме
66. Water	. Chhā	Chhū	. Chhu
67. House	. Nang khang-ma	Khang-ma, nang	Khang-pa
68. Horse	. Rstā	. Rstā	. Sta
69. Cow	Bang	. Bá	Ba-lang
70. Dog	. Khyi	. Khyi	. Khyi
71. Cat	 	. Bī-la	. Bī-la
72. Cock	Bryā-pō	. B ^e yā-pō	. Ja-po
73. Duck	. Batik	. Chhū-strok, byā-long	. Chhu-shrak; ngur-va
74. Ass	Bong-bu	Bong-bū	. Bong-ngu
75. Camel	. Shngā-bong	. Shngā-bong	. Shnga-bong
76. Bird	. Вü-u	Bi	. Chi-pa
77. Go	Chhā-chas	. Chhā-chas	. Chha-ches (infinitive)
78. Eat	Zā-ch ıs	. Zā-chas	. Za-ches
79. Sit	. Duk-chas	. Duk-chas	. Du'c-ches

	117	ritten.				S1		
						Spoken		
Chhung-	ma		•		Chhung-	ma; kyē	-men	•
Phrugu	•		•	•	Thugu;	phugu	•	
Bu	•	•	•		Lhu	• 7	•	
Bu-mo		•	•		Bhu-mo		•	•
<u>Ts</u> he-gy)g	•		•	Tshe-yok		•	•
	,	••••				•…••		
Lug-r <u>lz</u>	i	•	•	•	Luk- <u>lz</u> i			•
Dkon-mo	chho	g •		•	Kön-chho	k.	•	•
'Adre		• ,			Dhe .	•		• 1
Nyi-ma	•	• .	3	•	Nyi-ma .	•		
Zla-ba		•	•		Da-wa .	•		•
Skar-ma		•	•	•	Kar-ma .	•	•	•
Ме	٠.	• .	•	•	Ме	•	•	• !
Chhu.		• .	•		Chhu	•	•	• 1
Khyim	٠.	•	•	•	Khyim .	•	•	•
Rta .	•	•	•	٠	Ta .	•	•	•
Ba	•	•	•	•	Bha .	•	•	•
Khyi	•	•	•	•	Khyi .	•	•	•
Zhi-mi	•	•	•	•	Shi-mi .	•	•	•
Bya-po	•	•	•	• !	Jha-po .	•	•	•
Ya- <u>ts</u> e	•	•	٠		Υα- <u>ts</u> e .	•	•	
Bong-bu		•	•	•	Pong-ghu	•		
Rnga-bon	g	•	•	•	Nga-bong	•	•	
B y a .	•	•	•	•	Jha .		•	•
Song .		•	•	•	Song .			•
\mathbf{Z}_0		•	•		So .			
dod			•		Dö .	_		

Spiti (Spi ti) .			Kāgate (D	arjeeli	ng).	
Jan-mo .	•	•	•	Chhung-ma	•	•	
Thu-gu (phru	-gu)	•	•	Pi-za .			
Bu-tsa .				Pu .	•		
Bu-mo .	•	•	•	Po-mo .	•	•	•
Go-yal .	•	•		Yok-po .	•		•
Shim-pa.	•	•	•	Shing .	•	•	•
Dzi-o .	•	•	•	Karalu .	•	•	•
Kon-chhok	•		•	Sang-gye (=	Buddl	h a)	•
Dut .	•	•	•	Heṇḍi .	•	•	
Nyi-ma .	•	•	•	Nyi-ma .	•	•	
Da-wa .	•	•	•	Da-wa .	•	•	
Kar-ma .	•	•	•	Kar-ma .	•	•	
Me .	•	•	•	Me.	•	•	•
Chhu .	•	•	•	Chhu .	•	•	•
Kham-pa	•	•	•	Khim .	•	•	•
Ta .	•	•	•	Ta-bu .	•	•	•
Ba-lang .	•	•	•	Pa-lang .	•	•	•
Khi .	•	•	•	Khi .	•	•	-
Pi-shi .	٠	•	•	Gari .	•	•	•
Ja-pho .	•	•	•	Cha-bu .	•	•	•
Ngang-pa	•	•	•	Hangsa .	•		• ;
Bum-bu .	•	•	•	Punggu .	•	•	-
Nga-bong	•	•		Ama-koma	•	•	• !
Ja	•	•	•	Cha .	•	•	-
Song ,	•	•	•	Song .	•	•	.
Zo.,	•	•		So	•	•	• !
Dot .	•	•		Te.	٠	•	-
150—Tibet	an.			·			

Sharpa (Da	rjee	ling).		Panjongkë	i (Sandb	erg).		Lhoke (Da	rjeelir	ıg).	English.
Cher-mu	•		•	Khim-me	•	•	•	Nam .	•		53. Wife.
Pi-dza ·			•	Phugu .	•		•	Bu-tsho .	•		54. Child.
Pu-ju ng .	•	•		Pu .	•	•	•	A-lo .	•		55. Son.
Pu-mu .	•	•	•	Pum .	•	•	•	Bum .	•		56. Daughter.
Yok-pu .	•	•		Yok-ku .		•	•	Gyown .	•		57. Slave.
Shing-tap-khe	n	•	•	•				Zhing-la-pa	•		58. Cultivator.
Luk- <u>ts</u> o-kh en	•	•	•					Luk- <u>ts</u> ho -mi	•		59. Shepherd.
Kun-chok	•	•	•	Könchho	•	•	•	Lha.	•		60. God.
Dut .	•	•	•	•	•• •••			De .	•		61. Devil.
Nima .	•	•	•	Nyim .	•	•	•	Nyim			62. Sun.
Dawa .	•	•	•	Dau .	•	•	•	Dau .	•	• .	63. Moon.
Karma .	•	•	•	Kam .	•	•	•	Kam .	•		64. Star.
Me .	•	•	•	Mi .	•	•	•	Mi .	•		65. Fire.
Chhu .	•	•	•	Chhu .	•	•	•	Chhu .	•		66. Water.
Khang-pa	•	•	•	Khim .	•	•	•	Khyima .	•		67. House.
Та .	•	•	•	Та.	•	•	•	Та.	•		68. Horse.
Chhung-ma	•	•	•	Bhachu .	•	•	•	Ba	•		69. Cow.
Khi .	•	•		Khyi .	•	•	•	Pho-khyi	•		70. Dog.
Ber-me .	•	•	•	A-lü; shim	•	•	•	Bili .	•		71. Cat.
Cha-bu .	•	•	•	•	•••••			Вуар .	•	•	72. Cock.
Dam-cha	•	-	•	•	••••			Dam-bya.	•	•	73. Duck.
Pung-bu	•	•	•	Bong-gu	,	•		Bom .	•	•	74. Ass.
Nga-mong	•	•	•	1	••			Ngamo-gyet-p	a .	•	75. Camel.
Cha-chhung-n	126	•	•	Phya .	•	•	•	Bya .	•	•	76. Bird.
Gyuk .	•	•	•		•	•	•	Gyo .	•		77. Go.
So	•	•	•	Sa .	•	•	•	Za.	•	• •	78. Eat.
Dot .	•	•	•	Dö .	•	•	•	Dot .	•		79. Sit.

English.		Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik · Purik .	Ladākhī (Ladakh)
80. Come .	•	Ong-chas	Yong-chas	Yong-ches
81. Beat .	•	Teang-chas	Rdung-chas	Kdung-ches
82. Stand .	•	Lang-shas	Lang-shas	Langs-te duk-ches
83. Die	•	Shī-chas	Shī-chas	Shi-ches
84. Give .	•	Min-chas	Tang-chas	Tangsches; sal-ches (respectful).
85. Run .	•	Rgyuk-chas	Rgyuk-chas, bang tang- chas.	Rgyuk-ches
86. Up	•	Yar, khathok	Kha-thot	Gyen, kha-thok
87. Near .	•	Nyē-bō	Nyē-mō	Nye-mo
88. Down .	•.	Thuru	Yok-pō, yok-la	Thur, yok-la
89. Far	•	Thagh-ring	Thaghring	Thak-ring
90. Before .	•	Dunu, shitī-a, dunuk	Shitī-a	Dunla
91. Behind .	•	Rgyap-la	Rgyap-na	Rgyap-la,
92. Who .	•	Sŭ	. Sū	.Su
93. What	•	Chī	Chī	,Chi
94. Why .	•	Chi-phari; chi phares	. Chī-la	,Chii-phi-la
95. And .	•	Nang, yang	Yang, nang, dang	Dang, yang
96. But	•	Dō-in-na-sē, ama-ō	Ama-ō, in-na-yang	Yin-na-yang (being-in-even)
97. If	•	-na	na	-na
98. Yes .	•	In. o-ngā	In, ō-na, yot, duk	O-na; yin; yot; duk .
99. No .	•	Met, men, min-duk .	Men. met. min-duk	Man; met
100. Alas .	•	; La. le	. Wa	Wa
101. A father .	•	Atā chik.	Atā chik	A-ba-zhik
102. Of a father		Atā chig-ī	Atā chig-ī	A-ba-zhig-gi
103. To a father	. ,	Atā chik-la	Atā-chik-la	A-ba-zhik-la
104. From a father		Atā chik-nā	Atā chik-ná	A-ba-zhuk-nä
105. Two fathers	• .	Atā nyls	Δtā nyīs ,	A-ba nyis
106. Fathers .		Atā-un stā-ronn stā-chāl-	. Atā-gun	A-ba-gun

			Cent	ral Dia	lect (Sandberg ar	nd He	nderson	ı).		-
		N	7ritten	•				Spoken.			_
	Shog	•		•		. Shok	•	•	•		•
	Rdung	•	•	•		. Dung			•		•
	Long		•	•		. Long	٠	•	•		•
	Shi	•	•	•	,	. Shi	•	•	•	•	•
	Ster	•	•	. •	,	Ter	•	•	•	•	•
	Rgyug	•	•	•	•	Gyuk	•	•	•	•	
	Yar	•	•	•	•	Yar	•	•	٠	•	
	Nye-po	•	•	•	•	Nye-po	•	•	•		
	Mar	•	•	•	•	Mar	• ,	• ,	•	•	
	Thag-ri	ng-p	· .	•	•	Thak-ri	ng-p	0.	•	•	
	Gdong-l	a	•	•	•	Dong-la	; ng	än-la	•	•	
	Gzhug-l	a	•	•	•	Zhuk-la		• .	•	•	
	Su	•	•	•	•	Su	• ,	• ,	•	•	
	Gang;	ga-re	; chi	•	•	Ghang;	gha-	re; cl	ni	•	
	Gang-la		•	•	•	Ghang-la	1.	• .	•	•	
	Dang	•	•	•	•	Dhang	•	•	•	•	
(On-kyan	g	•	•	•	Ön-k y anı	g	•	•	•	
	Na	•	•	•	•	Na	•	•	•	•	
	Lags	• `	•	•	•	Lā	•	•	•	•	
Δ	lin	•	•	•	•	Min	•	• ,	•		
		••	••••				•••	• • • •			
A	A-pha zh	ig	•	•	•	A-pha shi	ik	•	•	•	
A	-pha-i	•	•	•	•	A-pha-yi		•	•	•	
A	-pha-la	,	•	•		A-pha-la		•	•	•	
A	pha-na	S	•	•	•	A-pha-nä		•	•	•	
A	-pha-gn	yis	1.	•	•	A-pha nyi		•	•		
A	-pha- <u>ts</u> b	ເວ	•	•	•	A-pha- <u>ts</u> h	0	•	•	•	
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}	Spiti (S	Spiti) .			Kāga	te (Da	ırjeelin	g).	
Shok	•	•	•	•	Sho	•	•		•
Dung	•	•	•		Rop-che		•		
Long	•	•	•		Long	•	•		•
Shi-tong		•	•	•	Shi	•	•	•	
Tong	•		•	•	Nang .	•	•	•	•
Gynk	•	•	•	•	Chhong	•	٠	•	٠
Khan-tol	k	•	•	•	Tho-la	•	,	•	•
Nyi-mo	•	•	•	•	Tha-ma	•	•	•	•
Yo	•	•	•	•	Cha-la	•	•	•	•
Thak-rin	ı g	•	•	•	Tharing-l	b u	•	•	•
Dun-nä	•	•	•	•	Nge-la	•	•	•	•
Gyap-nä		•	•	•	Ting-la	•	•	•	•
Su .	• -	•	•	•	Su.	•	•	•	•
Chi	•	•	•	•	Chi	•	•	•	•
Chi-la	•	•	•	•	Che-ia	•	•	•	•
Yang	•	•	•	•	Yang	•	•	•	•
Yin-kya	ng	•	•	•	Lap-na	•	•	•	•
Yang-na	,	•	•	•	Lap-ken,	lap-si	ing, la	p-na	•
O-na	•	•	•	•	Yin	•	•	•	•
Man	•	•	•	•	Min	•	•	•	•
	•••	•		1		••••			
A-pha sh	nik	•	•	•	A-ba chik	•	•	•	
A-pha sl	hı g- gi	•	•	•	A-ba chik		•	•	
A-pha sl			•	•	A-ba chik		•	•	•
A-pha sl	hik-nä		•	•	A-ba sale		•	•	•
A-pha n	yi	•	•	•	A-ba nyi		•	•	•
A-pha g	un	•	•	٠	A-ba-kya		•	•	•
154-T	ihotom								

Shar	pa (Darjee!	ling).		Panjong	kä (Sand	lberg).		Lhoke (I	O arj eel	ing).		English.
Shok	•	•	•	•	Shok .	•	•	•	Shok .	•	•	•	80. Come.
Dung			•		Tip .	•	•	•	Dung .	•	•	•	81. Beat.
Lang	•	•	•		! ! !	•••••			Long .	,	•	•	82. Stand.
Shi	•	•	•		Shi .	•	•		Shi .	•	•		83. Die.
Bin	•	•	•	•	Phin .	•	•	•	Byin .	•	•	•	84. Give.
Gyuk	•	•	•		Chhong .	•	•		Chhong .	•	•		85. Run.
Yar	•	•	•	•	Yaki .	•	•		Tak-li .	•	•	•	86. Up.
<u> Fs</u> a-la	•	•	•	•	<u>Ts</u> aka .	•	•		Bo-lo .	•	•	٠	87. Near.
Mar			•	•	Mar .	•	•	•	Ma.	•	•	•	88. Down.
Γhak-ring	g-bo	•	•	•	Thak-ring	•	•	•	Thak-ring	•	•	•	89. Far.
Dong-la,	dunį	g-la	•	•	Hen-lä .	•	•	•	Ngan-lä .	•	•	•	90. Before.
Gyap-la	•	•	•	•	Se-lo .	•	•		Shü-lä .	•	•		91. Behind.
Su .	•		•	•	Ka .	•	•	•	Gak-me-po	•	•	•	92. Who.
Gang		•	•	•	Kan .	•	•	•	Ga-chi-mo	•	•	•	93. What.
Gang-la	•	•	•	•	Kambe .	•	•	•	Gan-chi-bewo	•	•	•	94. Why.
fa-rung .	•	•	•	•	Ta-rung .	•	•		Tarura .	•	•		95. And.
Tin-n a-y a	ng	•	•	•		•••			Ying-rung	•		•	96. But.
na.	•	•	•	•	-nä; nu .	•	•	•	Gal-te .		•	•	97. If.
Tin .	•	•	•	•	Las .	•	•	•	Yin .	•	•	•	98. Yes.
Min .	,	•	•		Mem-bä; m	en .	•	•	Men .		•	• ;	99. No.
A-kha .	•	•	•	•		•••••			Akha .	•		•	100. Alas.
apa chik	ς .	•	•	•	A-pho chi	•	•	•	Ap chik .	•		•	101. A father.
apa chig	-gi	•	•	•	A-pho-i .	•	•		Ap chigi	•	•	•	102. Of a father.
apa chik	-la	•	•	•	A-pho-lo	•	•	$\cdot $	Ap chik-lo	•	•	•	103. To a father.
apa chik	-nä	•	•	•	A-pho-nä	•	•	•	Ap chik-lä	•		•	104. From a father.
apa nyi		•	•	•	A-pho-nyi	•	•	•	Ap nyi .	•		•	105. Two fathers.
apa <u>ts</u> ho			•		A-pho- <u>ts</u> ho	•	• .	. .	Ap- <u>ts</u> u .	•		Ì	106. Fathers.

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
107. Of fathers.	Aton-i (i.e., ata-un-i), atō-	Ata-gun-i	A-ba-gun-ni
108. To fathers	Atō-ngun-la	Atâ-gun-la · ·	A-ba-gun-la
109. From fathers .	Atō-ngun-nā	Atá-gun-nā	Aba-gun-nä
110. A daughter .	Bo-ngō chik	Bō-mō chik	Bo-mo-zhik
111. Of a daughter .	. Bo-ngō chig-i	Bō-mō chig-i	Bo-mo-zhig-gí
112. To a daughter .	Bo-ngō chik-la	Bō-mō chik-la	Bo-mo-zhik-la
113. From a daughter	Bo-ngō-chik-nā	Bō-mō chik-nā	Bo-mo-zhik-nă .
114. Two daughters .	Bo-ngō n y is	Bō-mō nyis	Bo-mo nyis
115. Daughters .	Bo-ngō-ngun	Bō-mō-gun	Bo-mo-gun
116. Of daughters .	Bo-ngō-ngun-ī.	Bō-mō-gun-i	Bo-mo-gun-ni
117. To daughters .	. Bo-ngō-ngun-la	Bō-mō-gun-la	Bo-mo-gun-la
118. From daughters.	. Bo-ngō-ngua-nā	Bō-mō-gun-nā	Bo-mo-gun-nä
119. A good man	. Leagh-mô mí chik	Noro mi-chik	Mi rgyal-la zhik .
120. Of a good man .	. Leagh-mo mi chig-i	Nōrō mī-chig-ī	Mi rgyal-la zhig-gi
121. To a good man .	. Leagh-mo mi chik-la .	Nōrō mī-chik-la	Mi rgyal-la zhik-la .
122. From a good man	. Leagh-mo mí chik-nā	Noro mi-chik-na	Mi rgyal-la zhik-nä .
123. Two good men .	. Leagh-mô mí nyis	Norō mi nyis	Mi rgyal-la nyis .
124. Good men.	. Leagh-mō mí-un	Noro mi-gun; rgyala mi- gun.	Mi rgyal-la-gun .
125. Of good men .	. Legha-mō mi-un-i	Norō mī-gun-ī	Mi rgyal-la-gun-ni .
126. To good men .	. Leagh-mō mī-un-la .	Noro mi-gun-la	Mi rgyal-la-gun-la .
127. From good men.	. Legha-mō mi-un-nā .	Noro mī-gun-nā	Mi rgyal-la-gun-nä .
128. A good woman .	. Leagh-mō bū-string chik	Norō bō-mō chik	Bo-mo rgyal-la zhik .
129. A bad boy	. Shrê-shrik bû chik .	Rtsok-pō-bu	Bu-tsha rtsok-po zhik
130. Соод жощец .	. Leagh-mō bā-string-gun .	Noro bo-mo-gun	Bo-mo rgyal-la sak .
131. A bad girl.	. Shrë-shrik bo-ngō chik .	Rtsok-pō bō-mō chik .	Bo-mo r <u>ts</u> ok-po zhik
132. Good	Leagh-mō	Noro; rgyal-a	Rgyal-la; zang-po; jak-p
133. Better	Dē-o-batsek leagh-mō (better than that).	Dī-u-vasang nō-rō (better	-sang rayai-ia

Written. Spoken.	
A who take i	
A -pha- \underline{ts} ho-i A -pha- \underline{ts} ho-i	•
A-pha-tsho-la A-pha-tsho-la	•
A-pha- <u>ts</u> ho-nas A-pha- <u>ts</u> ho-nä	•
Bu-mo zhig Bhu-mo shik	
Bu-mo-i Bhu-mo-i	
Bu-mo-la Bhu-mo-la	
Bu-mo-nas Bhu-mo-nä	•
Bu-mo gnyis Bhu-mo nyi	•
Bu-mo-tsho Bhu-mo-tsho	•
Bu-mo-tsho-i Bhu-mo-tsho-i .	•
Bu-mo-tsho-la Bhu-mo-tsho-la .	•
Bu-mo-tsho-nä . Bhu-mo-tsho-nä .	•
······	
·······	
•••••	
·····	
•••••	

Yag-po; legs-pa Yak-ho: is you	
Yak-po; legs-pu Yak-po; le-pu	

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Spiti (Spiti).			Kāgate (Darjeeling).	
A-pha nam-ki.	•	•	A-ba-hari-ki .	•
A-pha gun-la .		•	A-ba-kei (Aba-kya-la)	•
A-pha-gun-nä.	•	•	A-ba-sale	
Bu-mo shik .	•		Po-mu chik	•
Bu-mo shig-gi .	•		Po-mu chik-i-di .	•
Bu-mo shik-la .	•		Po-mu chik-la .	
Bu-mo shik-nä	•		Po-mu chik minji .	•
Bu-mo nyi	•		Po-mu nyi	•
Bu-mo nam .	•		Po-mu-kya	
Bu-mo nam-ki	•	-	Po-mu-kya-gi-di (ke-i-di)	
Bu-mo gun-la .	•	•	Po-mu kya-la	•
Ru-mo gun-nä	•	•	Po-mu kya minjik .	•
Mi gyala shik .	•	•	Ya-bu mi chik	•
Mi gyala shig-gi	•	•	Ya-bu mi chik-i-di .	-
Mi gyala shik-la	•	•	Mi ya-bu chik-la .	
Mi gyala shik-nä	•		Mi ya-bu chik-le	•
Mi gyala nyi .	•	•	Mi ya-bu nyī	-
Mi gyala gun .	•	•	Mi ya-bu kya	•
Mi gyala gun-gi	•		Mi ya-bu ke-i-di .	•
Mi gyala gun-la	•	•	Mi ya-bu kya-la .	•
Mi gyala nam-nä	•		Mi ya-bu kya-sa-le .	•
Bo-mo gyala shik		•	Pe-mi ya-bu chik .	•
Ţhu-gu sok-po shik	•		Piza ma-ya-ba chik .	•
But-met gyala	•		Ya-bu pe-mi-kya .	•
But-met sok-po shik	:	•	Po-mu ma-ya-ba chik	•
Gyala	•		Ya-bu . , .	•
De-sang gyala .	•	•	Ya-bu	•

Sharpa (Darjeelin	ıg).	Panjongka (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Papa-tsho-yi .		A-pho- <u>ts</u> ho-i	Ap-isu-gi	107. Of fathers.
Papa-tsho-la .		A-pho-tsho-lo	Ap-tuu-lo	108. To fathers.
Papa- <u>ts</u> ho-nä .		A-pho- <u>ts</u> ho-nä	Ap- <u>ts</u> u-l ä	109. From fathers.
Pu-mo chik .		Pum chi	Bum chik	110. A daughter.
Pu-mo chig-gi.			Bum chigi	111. Of a daughter.
Pu-mo chik-la .			Bum chik-lo	112. To a daughter.
Pu-mo chik-nä .		·····	Bum chik-lä	113. From a daughter.
Pu-mo nyī .			Bum nyi	114. Two daughters.
Pu-mo-tsho .			Bum- <u>ts</u> u	115. Daughters.
Pu-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-yi .		••••••	Bu-mo-i	116. Of daughters.
Pu-mo <u>ts</u> ho-la .		·····	Bu-mo-lu	117. To daughters.
Pu-mo <u>ts</u> ho-nä .			Bum-tsu-lä	118. From daughters.
Mi le-mo chik .		Mi lem chi	Mi lek-zhim chik	119. A good man.
Mi le-mo chig-gi			Mi lek-zhim chigi	120. Of a good man.
Mi le-mo chik-la		•••••	Mi lek-zhim chik-lo	121. To a good man.
Mi le-mo chik-nä		·····	Mi lek-zhim chik-lä	122. From a good man.
Mi le-mo nyī .			Mi lek-zhim nyi	123. Two good men.
Mi le-mo-tsho .		•••••	Mi lek-zhim- <u>ts</u> u	124. Good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-yi			Mi lek-zhim- <u>ts</u> o-i	125. Of good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-la		•••••	Mi lek-zhim-tsu-lo	126. To good men.
Mi le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho-nä		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Mi lek-zhim- <u>ts</u> u-lä	127. From good men.
Per-me le-mo chik			Am lek-zhim chik	128. A good woman.
Pi-dza ma-le-pa) , HC •••	Bu-tsho zcp chik	129. A bad boy.
Per-me le-mo- <u>ts</u> ho			Am lek-zbiin- <u>ts</u> u	130. Good women.
Pu-mo ma-le-pa			Bu-mo zok chik	131. A bad girl.
Le-mo	٠.	Lem	Lek-zhim	132. Good.
Si-na le-mo .		Te-lä lem	•••••	133. Better.

English.		Baltī (Baltistau).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
134. Best .	•	· Chok-batsek l'agh-m5	Thsang-ma-vasang noro .	<u>Tshang-mä sang rgyal-la</u> .
135. High .	•	. Thon-mō	Thon-mō	Thon-po
136. Higher .	•	. Dē-o-batsek thon-mō.	Dī-u-vasang thon-mō	-sang thon-po
137. Highest .	•	. Chōk-batsek thon-mō	Thsang-ma-vasang thon-mō	<u>Tshang-mä sang thon-po</u> .
138. A horse .	•	. Rstā chik	Rstā chik	Sta zhik
139. A mare .	•	. Rgun-mā chik	Rgunmā chik, ghun-mā chik	
140. Horses .		. Rstā-ngun	Rstā-gun, (-un)	Sta-gun, sta-sak
141. Mares .		. Rgun-mō-ngun (chōk) .		
142. A bull .	•	Ghlang chik, ghlang-tō chik	G11	Rgot-ma-sak
143. A cow .	•	Bā chik		Hlang-to chik
	•			Ba-lang chik
144. Bulls •	•	. Ghlang-gun; Ghlang-ngun		Hlang-to-sak
145. Cows .	•	Bā-ngun	Bā-un, bā-gun	Ba-lang-sak ,
146. A dog •	•	. Khyī chik	Khyi chik	Khyi zhik
147. A bitch .	•	. Khyī-mō chik	Khyī-mō chik	Khyi-mo zhik
148. Dogs .	•	Khyī-ngun	Khyi-un, khyi-gun	Khyi-gun
149. Bitches .	•	Khyī-mō-ngun	Khyi-mō-gun	Khyi-mo-gun
150. A he goat .	•	Rā-skyes chik	Rā-skyes chik	Ra-po chik
151. A female goat	•	Rā chik	Rābak chik	Ra-ma chik
52. Goats .	•	Rā-bak-gun	Rābak-gun	Ra-ma-sak
153. A male deer	•	Shā-phū-rang chik	Rōpō <u>ts</u> ē-phō chik	Sha-po
54. A female deer		Shā mō-rang chik	Rōpō tsē-mō chik	Sha-mo
.55. D eer .		Shā, shā-ba, rī-dag <u>h</u> s	Shā, rī-dag <u>h</u> s	Sha-ba
56. I am .		Ngā yot	Nga-rang in	Iga iu
57. Thou art .		Khiang yot	Khye-rang in	Thyot in
58. He is .		Kho yot		Tho in .
59. We are		Ngayā yct , 1		ga-zha in
60. You are .	• • •		-1	hvo ghe in
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Central	Dialect	t (San	dberg and Henderson).
Written.		Spoken.	
			·····
Mthon-po .	•	•	Thom-po
			••••
Rta-po	•	•	Та-ро
Rgod-ma .	•	•	Gö-ma
Rta- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	Ta-tsho
Rgod-ma-tsho .	•		Gö-ma- <u>ts</u> ho
Glang			Lang
Ва-то	•		Bha-mo
Glang-tsho .	•	•	Lang- <u>ts</u> ho
Ba-mo- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	Bha-mo-tsho
Pho-khyi .	•	•	Pho-khyi
Mo-khyi	•	•	Mo-khyi
Pho-khyi- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	Pho-khyi-tsho
Mo-khyi- <u>ts</u> ho .	•	•	Mo-kḥyi-tsho
····			Ra-thong
Ra-ma	•		Ra-ma
Ra-tsho	•	•	Ra-tsho
			, <u>.</u>
•••			,
Nga yod .			Nga yö
Khyod 'adug .	•	•	Khyö duk
Kho 'adug .	•	•	Kho duk
Nga-tsho yod .	•	•	Nga- <u>ts</u> ho yö , .
Khyod-tsho 'adug	•	•	Khyö- <u>ts</u> ho duk
			M:1 1 702

Spiti (Spiti). Kagate (Darjeeling). <u>Ts</u>hang-mä sang gyala Thon-po . Rung-bu. De-sang thon-po <u>Ts</u>hang-mä sang thon-po Mang-bu rung-bu (-much high one). chik Ta shik . Ta-bu chik Gotma shik Ta-mu chik Ta nam . Ta-bu kya Gotma nam Ta-mu kya Lang-to shik Lang chik Ba-lang shik . Pa-lang chik Lang-to nam . Lang kya Ba-lang nam Pa-lang kya Khi shik Khi chik. Mo khi shik Khi-mu chik Khi nam. Khi-kya Mo-khi nam Khi-mu kya Ra-wo shik Changre chik . Ra-ma shik Ra-ma chik Ra-rigs nam Ra-kya Sha-pho shik . Khyesa chik Sha-mo shik . Khyesa a-ma (deer-mother) Sha-wa-rigs nam . Khyesa kya Ngã yin . Nga e Khyut yin · . Khyo e . Kho yin .

. Kho e

. Ngi-kya e

. Кhyое .

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Nga-zha yin .

Khyo-zha ym .

Sharpa (Darjeeli		Dänjongkä (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Te-ri si-na le-mo		Gün-lä lem		134. Best.
Thon-bu .		Tho	Tho-wo	135. High.
Si-na thon-bu .		Te-lä tho		136. Higher.
Te-ri si-na thon-bu		Gün-lä tho		137. Highest.
Ta chik		Ta chi	Ta chik	138. A horse.
Goid-ma		•	Goym chik	139. A mare.
Ta-tsho			Ta-tsu	140. Horses.
Goid-ma-tsho .		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Goym-tsu	141. Mares.
Lang chik .		•••••	Lang chik	142. A bull.
Chhung-ma chik		Bhachu chi	Ba chik	143. A cow.
Lang-tsho .		••••	Lang-tsu	144. Bulls.
Chhung-ma-tsho		*****	Ba-tsn	145. Cows.
Ki chik		*** ***	Pho-khyì chik	146. A dog.
Ki-mo chik .			Khyi-mu chik	147. A bitch.
Ki-tsho	•	••••	Pho-khyi-tsu	148. Dogs.
Ki-mo-tsho .	•	••••	Mo-khyi-tsu	149. Bitches.
Ra-pho chik .	•	Ra-po	Ra-pho chik	150. A he goat.
Ra-mo chik .	•		Ra-ma chik	151. A female goat.
*****		•••••	Ra- <u>ts</u> u	152. Goats.
Kha-sha-pho chik		••••	Sha-pho chik	153. A male deer.
Kha-sha-mo chik	• •	•••••	Sha-mo chik	154. A female deer.
Kha-sba.	• •	·····	Sha-u	155. Deer.
Nga yin		Nga in	Nga yin	156. I am.
Khyot-rang yin	•	Chhö bä	Khyot yin-bet	157. Thou art.
Kho yin	• •	Kho bä	Kho bet	158. He is.
Dak-pu yin .		Nga-chain	Nga-chak yin	159. We are.
Khyot-rang yin	• 1	Chhö bä •	Khyot yin-bet	160. You are.

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
161. They are	. Khong yot	Khong in	. Kho-gun in
162. I was	. Ngá yot-pa	· Nga-rang yot-pin· .	. Nga yot-pin
163. Thou wast.	. Khiang yot-pa.	. Khye-rang yot-pin .	. Khyot yot-pin
164. He was	. Khō yot-pa	Khō yot-pin	. Kho yot-pin
165. We were	. Ngayā yot-pa . · .	. Nga-tang yot-pin .	. Nga-zha yot-pin
166. You were	. Khye-tang yot-pa	. Khyen-tang yot-pin .	. Khyo-zha yot-pin
167. They were .	. Khong yot-pā .	. Khong yot-pin .	. Kho-gun yot-pin
168. Be	. Yot, duk, in	· Yot, duk, in	Yot, duk, in
169. To be	Yot-chas .	Yot-chas.	Yot-ches
170. Being	Yot-pa, yot-té .	· Yot-tē	Yot-te; yot-khan
171. Having been .	Yot-pa in-tē	Yot-khan in-tē	Yot-khan in-te
172. I may be	. Ngã yot-na (if I be) .	Ngā yot-na (if I be)	Nga yot dro
173. I shall be	. Ngã đug-uk	Ngā dug-in	Nga dug-in
174. I should be .	. Ngā duk rgos	Ngā duk rgos	Nga duk-rgos (ghos)
175. Beat	. Teong, rdung	Rdung	Rdung
176. To beat	. Teang-chas	Rdung-chas	Rdung-ches
177. Beating	. Teang-sē	Rdung-sē	Rdung-ste
178. Having beaten .	. Teangesē yot-pa	Rdung-sē yot-pa	Rdung-tshar-te
179. I beat	Ngā-se t ^e ang-nuk ·	Nga-s rdung-duk	Ngä rdung-at
180. Thou beatest .	Khiang-se teang-et	Khye-rang-is rdung-duk .	Khyod-dis rdung-at .
181. He beats	Khō-se teang-et	Khō-s rdung-duk	Kho-e rdung-duk
182. We beat	Ngaya-se teang-nuk	Nga-tang-is rdung-duk .	Nga-zhä rdung-at
183. You beat	Khyetang-se teang-et .	Khyen-tang-is rdung-duk .	Khyo-zhä rdung-at .
184. They beat	Khong-se teang-et	Khun-t-is rdung-duk .	Kho-gun-nis rdung-duk .
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Ngā-se t°angs, tʻangs-pa	Nga-rang-is rdung-s	Ngä rdungs-pin
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Khiang-se t ^c angs-pa	Khye-rang-is rdung-s .	Khyed-dis rdungs-pin .
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	Khō-se teangs-pa	Khō-s rdung-s	Kho-e rdungs-song
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Central Dialect (Sandberg and Henderson).				
Written. Spoken.				
Kho-tsho 'adug .	. Kho-tsho duk			
Nga yod-pa-yin .	. Nga yö-pa-yin			
Khyod yod-pa-red .	. Khyö yö-pa-re			
Kho yod-pa-red .	. Kho yö-pa-re			
Nga- <u>ts</u> ho yod-pa-yin	. Nga- <u>ts</u> ho yö-pa-yin			
Khyod- <u>ts</u> ho yod-pa-red	. Khyö- <u>ts</u> ho yö-pa-re			
Kho-tsho yod-pa-red	. Kho- <u>ts</u> ho yö-pa-re			
::.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
Yod-pa	Yö-pa			
******	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
				
•				
	.i			
•••				
Rdung	Dung · . · . · .			
Rdung-ba	Dung-wa · . · .			
Rdung-ba	Dung-wa			

••••••	Nga-rang-ghī dung-ghi yö.			
•••••	Khyö-tang-ghi dung-ghi du			
•••••	Kho-rang-ghi dung-ghi du			
•••••	Nga- <u>ts</u> ho-ghī dung-ghi yö .			
*** ***	Khyö- <u>ts</u> ho-ghī dung-ghi du			
	Kho-pa-i dung-ghi du .			
••• •••	Nga-rang-ghi dung-wa-yin			
•••••	Khyö-rang-ghī dung-wa-re			
••••	Kho-rang-ghi dung-wa-re.			
	· !			

Spiti (S piti)	Kägate (Darjeeling).
Kho-ba yin	Khung-kya e
Ngã yod-din	Nga woe
Khyud yod-din	Rang woe
Kho yod-din	Kho woe
Nga-zha yod-din	Ngi-kya woe
Khyo-zha yod-din	Rang-kya woe
Kho-ba yod-din	Khung-kya woe
Yot	•••••
Yot-che	•••••
Yot-te	····
·····	·····
Chi she ngã yin-do	Nga-i ong-do
•••	••••••
	•••
G y op	Rop-kong
Gyap-che	Rop-che
Gyab-bin shik dang	Rop-di
Gyab-te	Rop-sing-di
Ngä gyab-ba yot	Ngai rop-ken
Khyoi gyap duk	Khyo-i rop-ken
Khoi gyap duk	Kho-i rop-ku-du
Nga-zhä gyab-ba yot .	Ngi-kya-i rop-ken
Khyo-zhä gyab-ba dut .	Khyo rop
Kho-bä gyap-duk	Khung-e rop-to
Ngā gyab-ban	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Khyut-ki gyap-song	*****
1	1
Khoi gyab-ban	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

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Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Panjongka (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Kho-tsho yin	Khong bä	Khong bet	161. They are,
	······	······	162. I was.
·····			163. Thou wast.
·····		*****	164. He was.
		404	165. We were.
•••••		•••••	166. You were.
	······	•••••	167. They were.
Yot		Yin-ba	168. Be.
		Yin-ba	169. To be.
Chung-ni		Yin-ba	170. Being.
Chung-de			171. Having been
Nga yin-do	·····	Nga yin-gyu	172. I may be.
Nga yong		Nga thä-gyu	173. I shall be.
Nga yong goi		Nga yin-pa thä-gyu	174. I should be.
Dung		Dung-che	175. Beat.
Dung-gyu		Dung-bo	176. To beat.
Dung-gi nok		Dung-bo	177. Beating.
Dung-nä		Dung-di-gi	178. Having beaten.
Ngas dung-gi yot		Nga dung	179. I beat.
Khi dung-gi nok	·····	Khyot dung	180. Thou beatest.
Khoi dung-gi nok		Khu dung	181. He beats.
Dak-pui dung-gi yok .	•••••	Nga-chag-gi dung .	182. We beat
Khi dung-gi nok		Khyot dung	183. You beat.
Kho-tshoi dung-gi nok .		Khong-gi dung	184. They beat
Ngas dung-ba yin		Nga dum-yin	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Khi dung-gi nok		Khyot dum-yin	186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
Khoi dung-song		Kho dum-yi	187. He beat Past Tense).

English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhī (Ladakh).
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Ngaya-se teangs-pa	Ngarê-s rdung-s	Nga-zhä rdungs-pin .
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Khyetang-se t ^e angs-pa .	Khyen-ti-s rdung-s	Khyo-zha rdungs-pin .
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Khong-ise teangs-pa .	Khong-is rdang-s	Kho-gun-nis rdungs-pin .
191. I am beating	Ngã t'ang-ma duk	Ngā-rang rdung-gin duk	Nga rdung-gin duk
192. I was beating	Ngã t°ang-ma duk-pa .	Ngā-rang rdung gin duks- pa.	Nga rdung-gin yot-pin .
193. I had beaten	Ngā-se teang-s-et-pa	Ngā-res rdung-s-et-pa .	Ngä rdungs-pin
194. I may beat	049		
195. I shall beat .	. Ngā-se t ^e ang-uk	Nga·rē-s rdung·uk, or rdung-in.	Ngā rdung-in
196. Thou wilt beat .	Khiang-se teang-uk	Khye-r-is rdung-uk	Khyod-dis rdung-in .
197. He will beat	Khō-se teang-uk	Khō-s rdung-uk	Kho-i rdung-in
198. We shall beat .	Ngaya-se teang-uk	Nga-té-s rdung-uk	Nga-zha rdung-in
199. You will beat .	Khye-tang-se teang-uk .	Khyen-ti-s rdung-uk .	Khyo-zhä rdung-in
200. They will beat .	Khong-ise teang-uk .	Khong-is rdung-uk	Kho-gun-nis rdung-in
201. I should beat .	. Ngā-se t ^e ang-rgos-uk .	Nga-s rdung-1gos	Ngà rdung-ghos
202. I am beaten .	Ngā teang-ma song-s-et .	Ngā rdung-se duk	Nga-la rdung-duk
203. I was beaten .	Ngā teang-ma song-s-et-pa.	Ngā rdung-se duk-s-pa .	Nga-la rdungs-pin
204. I shall be beaten	Ngā t e ang-ma-gik (gik- $will$ go).	Ngā-la rdung-chas yong-uk	Nga-la rdung-in
205. I go	. Ngā gō-et	Ngã-rang chhết (=chhã-et)	Nga-chha-at
206. Thou goest .	. Khiang gō-et	Khye-raug chhēt	Khyot chha-at .
207. He goes • •	Khō gō-et	Khō chhēt	Kho chha-ruk
208. We go	. Ngayā gō-et	Nga-tang chhêt	Nga-zha chha-at
209. You go	Khye-tang go-et	Khyen-tang chhēt	Khyo-zha chha-at .
210. They go	. Khong gō-et	Khong clihēt	Kho-gun chha-ruk .
211. I went	. Ngā song, song-pa	Ngā-rang 30ng-m-in. or, song- bin.	Nga song-pin
212. Thou wentest .	. Khiang song	Khye-rang song-m-in .	Khyot song-pin .
213. He went	. Khō song	Khō song-m-in	Kho song
214 We went	Ngayā song	Nga-tang song-m-in	Nga-zha song-pin .

Central Dialect (Sandberg and Henderson).				
Written. Spoken.				
	Nga-tsho-ghi dung-wa-yin.			
101.000	Khyö-tsho-ghi dung-wa-re			
	Kho-pai dung-wa-re .			
•••••	Nga-rang-ghi dung-ghi yö			
	••••			
•••••				
•••••	••••			
Ngas rdung-yong .	. Ngä dung-yong			
Khyod-kyis rdung-yong	. Khyö-kyi dung-yong .			
Khos rdung-yong .	Khö dung-yong			
Nga- <u>ts</u> hos rdung-yong	. Nga-tshö dung-yong .			
Khyod- <u>ta</u> hos rdung-yong	Khyö- <u>ta</u> hö dung-yong .			
Kho- <u>ts</u> hos rdung-yong	Khon-tshö dung-yong .			
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Spiti (Spiti).		Kāgate (Darjeeling).
Nga-zhä gyab-ban	•	
Khyo-zhä gyab-ban .	•	•••
Kho-bä gyab-ban .	•	
Ngā gyab-bin shik dang yo	ot.	Nga-i rop-ken
Nga gyab-bin yod-din	•	Nga-i rop-rang-rop-ku-ye- ken.
Ngā gyap tshar-ban .		Nga-i rop-sing
Chi she ngä gyab-in.	-	
Ngä gyab-in	•	
Khyod-ki gyab-in .	•	•••••
Khoi gyab-in	•	•••••
Nga-zhä gyab-in .	•	
Khyo-zhä gyab-in .	•	••-
Kho-bä gyab-in .	•	
•••••	;	Nga-i rop-kong
Ngă-la gyab-in chha-ruk	•	Nga-la rop-lang-sing .
Ngă-la dung duk-pin		Nga-la rop-lang-sing
•••••		Nga-la rop-lang-gue .
Ngă chha-a yot .	•	Nga don
Khyut chha-ruk .	•	Khyo don
Kho chha-ruk	•	Kho don
Nga-zha chha-a yot .	•	
Khyo-zha chha-ruk .	•	
Kho-ba chha-ruk .	•	
Ngš song-ban	•	Nga kal-sing
Khyut song-ban	•	Khyo kal-pa
Kho song-ban	•	Kho kai-sıng
Nga-zha song-ban .	•	·

Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Pänjongkä (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Dak-poi dung-pa-yin .	200 ***	Nga-chag-gi dum-yi	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Khi dung-song		Chot dum-yi	189. You beat (Past Tonse).
Kho-tshoi dung-song .	*** ***	Khong-gi dum-yi	190. They beat (Past Tense).
Ngas dung-gi yot	•••••	Nga dum da-o-yin	191. I am beating.
Ngas dung-gi yot-pa yin .	*****	Nga dum da-o gang-yin .	192. I was beating.
Ngas dung-pa yin	·····	Nga dum tsha-di yin .	193. I had beaten.
Ngas dung-chhok	, •••••	Nga dum go ong	194. I may beat.
Ngas dung-yong	•••••	Nga dung-ni yin	195. I shall beat.
Khi dung-yong	*****	Chhot dung-ni yin	196. Thou wilt beat.
Khoi dung-yong	*****	Khu dung-ong	197. He will beat.
Dak-poi dung-yong	•••••	Nga-chak dung-ni-yin .	198. We shall beat.
Khi dung-yong	•••••	Chhoy dung-ong	199. You will beat.
Kho-tshoi dung-yong .	*****	Khong dung-ong	200. They will beat.
Ngas dung-goi	•••••	Nga dung-go	201. I should beat.
Nga-la dung-song	•••••	Nga dung-do-yin	202. I am beaten.
Nga-la dung-chung	•••••	Nga dum-yin	203. I was beaten.
Nga-la dung-yong	•••••	Nga dung-ong	204. I shall be beaten.
Nga do-gi yot	•••••	Nga gyo-do-yin	205. I go.
Khyo do-gi nok	·····	Chhot gyo-do	206. Thou goest.
Kho do-gi nok	******	Kho gyo-do-wat	207. He goes.
Dak-po do-gi yot	••••••	Nga-chak gyo-do	208. We go.
Khyo do-gi nok	*****	Chho gyo-do	209. You go.
Kho-tsho do-gi nok	*** ***	Khong gyo-do	210. They go.
Nga gal-bin	••••	Nga song-yi	211. I went.
Khyo gal-lup-song	*****	Chhot song-yi	212. Thou wentest.
Kho gal-song	•••	Kho song-yi	213. He went.
Dak-po gal-lup	•••••	Nga-chak song-yi	214. We went.

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English.	Baltī (Baltistan).	Purik (Purik).	Ladākhî (Ladakh).
215. You went	Khye-tang song	Khyen-tang song-m-in .	Khyo-zha song
215. They went	Khong song	Khun tang song-m-in .	Kho-gun song
217. Go	Song	Chhen-zhik	Song shik
218. Going	Song-sĕ	Song-sē	Chha-khan
219. Gone	Song-sē	Song-sē	Song-khan
220. What is your name? .	Yar-rî ming-taghs chî zer- et ?	Khyer-î ming chî yot? .	Khyo-rang-ngi ming-la chi zer-duk?
221. How old is this horse?	Rstā dū-i nasō <u>ts</u> am- <u>ts</u> ē in ?	Diŭ rstā-la nasō <u>ts</u> am <u>ts</u> ē du k ?	I sta na-so tsham duk? .
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Khachul-la <u>ts</u> am- <u>ts</u> ē lam yot?	Dī-khā-nā Khachul <u>ts</u> hakpa <u>ts</u> am <u>ts</u> ē thag <u>h</u> -rings duk?	I-nas Kha-chhul <u>ts</u> huk-pa lam <u>ts</u> ham zhik duk?
223. How many sons are there in your father's	Khyed-i atā-i khangma-la bū <u>ts</u> am yot?	Khye-rī at-ī kḥang-ma-la bū tsam duk?	Khyo-rang-ngi a-bä khang-pa-la bu- <u>ts</u> ha <u>ts</u> ham zhik duk?
house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Dī-ring thagh-ring lam-la song-s-et-pa.	Diring ngā thag <u>h</u> -rings drul-s-pin.	
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	string-mo nang bakhston	Nga-rī atā bū-tsha-s rang-ī a-chē nang bagh-stonb ^e yas.	Ngä a-zhang-ngi bu- <u>ts</u> hä rang-ngi shring-mo a-ne-la khyer-s.
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse		Khang-ma-la karpō rstā sgâ yot.	! — · · ·
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Khu-rī shul-ī khā sgà stot.	Sgå-stan khu-ri shul-i khā tong.	Gha stot
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ngā-se khoi phrū-la thur mā mot-pō t ^e aug-s	Nga-s khu-rī bū-la mang- mō stal-chak tang-s.	Ngä kho-i bu-tsha-la sta- lehags mang-po tang-s.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Khō-esi bang-nor-gun brog- la tshō-in yot.	Khō rī-gō thon-mō-la nor- gun tshō-in duk.	Kho-e ring-go-la dut-dro tsho-va-la khyers.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Khō rstä-khā stagh chig-i ogtu duk-sē yot.	Khō rstä khā zhon-ne lchang-mī yok duk.	Kho a bu-drä yok-la stä- kha zhou-te duk-duk.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Khoē phō-nō khurī string- mō-batsek rgō-bongs thon- mō yot.	Khu-rī phō-nō khu-rī a-chē vasang thon-mō duk.	Kho-i shring-moi sang a- cho gho-bo ring-mo duk.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.		Dū-i rin-la gir-mō phed- ang-sum duk.	I rin-po gir-mo phed-ang sum yot.
233. My father lives in that small house.	Ngī atā dē <u>ts</u> un <u>ts</u> ē nang-po duk-sē yot.	Nga-rî atā ē <u>ts</u> un <u>ts</u> ē khang- ma-la duk-sī yot.	Ngä a-ba a khang-ngu-i nang-na duk-duk.
234. Give this rupee to him	Di shmul-pô khō-la min .	Diā shmul-pō khô-la tong .	I gir-mo kho-la tong
235. Take those rupees from him.	Yā shmul-pō-ngun khō-nā len.	Ē shmul-gun khu-rī kha-nē len.	A gir-mo sak kho-i kha- na nen-shik.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	rdung-sê lja <u>kh</u> -pi-khā	Khō-la nōrō basē rdung yang thag-pa-ching-sē ber	Kho-la shran-te rdung-s-te thak-pa dang nyam-po kyigs-shig.
237. Draw water from the well.	ching. Chhūdong nang-nā chhū phyung.	Chhū-mik-nā chhā khyong	Chhu-dong-nä chhu zhik
238. Walk before me .	Ngi dunuk song	N gä snà drul	Ngä dun-la drul-chik .
239. Whose toy comes behind you?	- Su-î phrû yari rgyab-la ong-et?	Su-ī bū khye-rī rgyap-na yong-duk?	Khyo-rang-ngi sting-la drul-khan-po su-i bu- tsha in?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Dĩu su-i shiti-a-na len-s ?	Khye-ris diù su-î kha-në nyōs-yot?	1
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Prong-i dukān-i shiti-a-nā lens.	Yul-ī hatri-pa chig-i khā-nē	I yul-li tshong-pa zhik-nii .
		<u> </u>	<u> </u>

1	Central Dialect (S	andberg and Henderson).
	Written.	Spoken.

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	••• •••	

	*****	Khyö-kyi ming-la ghang ser?
	*****	•••
		Di-nä (Kha-chül-) la tha- ring-thung gha-tsho re?
	•••	•••••
	**** ***	

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	•••••	Khyö-rang ngä ngän-la gyuk.
	,	•••••
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	•••	****
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Spiti (Spiti).	Kägate (Darjeeling).
Khyo-zha song-ban	
Kho-ba song-ban	
Song	
Chha-yin shig dang	
Song-khan	Kal-sing
Khiut-ki ming chi yin? .	Chimba khyoi ming?
Di ta-i lo tsam song?	Ta-bi lo kazai di?
Di-nä Khachhul ga- <u>ts</u> am thak-ring yot?	Ka-ze tharing-bu di-le Kashmir?
Khyo-zhä a-phä khang-pa- ru bu-tsa tsam yot?	Khyo a-ba-sa-la pu ka-ze ye-ba?
De-ring ngà mā-lam thak- ring dul-ban.	Nga tharing-bu kal-sing .
Nga a-khui bu-tsä kho-bä a-chi ba-ma-la chhong-de yot.	Nga-i agu-i pu khu-i nu-mu nimbu yarka kal-song.
Ta kar-poi ta-ga de khang- pa-ru yot.	Ta-bu karumgi kā khim-la yoe.
Ta-ga khoi gyab-bi kharu bor.	Kā khoi kyap-la kal
Ngā khoi bu-tsa-la ta-chak mang-po gyab-ban.	Ngai rob-sing khoi pu-la kyakche shuk-pu-ki.
Rigä go-ru kho-i dud-do	Khoi kang-la bastu-kya tshou-du.
Kho bu-ṭa shig-gi yok-tu tai kha-ru dat-duk.	Kho ta-bu kha-la za-di tong-bu-gi wā-lā du.
Khoi a-cho khoi a-chi sang thon-po duk.	Khoi a-zi bhanda no rim-bu du.
Dei rin ngul chhed dang sum yin.	Khoi ring sika nyi dang tanga chik.
Nga a-pha de khang-pa chungun-du dad-da yot.	Ngai a-ba o khim chhung- la te-kue.
Di ngul kho-la tong .	Di nor kho-la ter
De ngul kho-nä len-tong .	Kho-sale nor-kya kher-chu
Kho-la pu-sang gyop-de rashi dang ching-tong.	Kho-la rop-tong yang thak- pa-gi bes pedi tong.
Chhu-dong-nä chhu ton .	Kuwa-le chhu ten
Ngã sang ngun-la dul .	Ngai nge-la do
tsa yong-duk!	Sui pi-za khyoi ting-la onggu duba?
Khyot-ki de sui kha-nä nyos-pin?	
Yul-gi haṭi-pa shik-nä	Yul-gi dokardar-sa-le nyoba

Sharpa (Darjeeling).	Panjongka (Sandberg).	Lhoke (Darjeeling).	English.
Khyod-rang gal		Chho song-yi	. 215. You went.
Kho-tsho gal	·····	Khong song-yi.	. 216. They went.
Gyug	Song; gyu	Gyo; song	. 217. Go.
	•••••	Gyo-do	218. Going.
Gal-song		Long-song-yi	219. Gone.
Khi ming kang yin?	Chhö ming kam bo? .	Khyot ming ga-chi yin? .	220. What is your name?
Ta di ga-dzu gal?	Di ta di-lo ka- <u>dz</u> u som-bo?	Ta di na ga-tä chik yin? .	221. How old is this horse?
Kha-ji-lung-ba-la di-nä thak-ring-bu ka- <u>dz</u> u ot?	Nai-le Kashmir san-te tha- ring-tung ka- <u>lz</u> ö-mo?	Na-la-Kha-chhi-yol tha- ring-thung ga-tä-chik yin?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Khi papa-i khang-ba-la pu- jung ka-dzu yot ?	******		223. How many sons are there in your
A-ring nga thak-ring po-nä ong-wa yin.		Ngä de-ring tha-ring-chik shel tang zin.	father's house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ngai a-gu-i pu-jung kho-i nu-mo tang gyan kus ot.	······	Ngä a-zhangi budi khui sring-mo dang nyan kyab- yin.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Khang-ba-la ta kar-pa-i ka od.	•••••		226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
Ka di gyap-la kal	····	Gadi khui gä-pa kyap .	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Ngas khoi pu-jung-la a-la dung-pa-yin.		Ngä khui budi bik-ko mam kyap-ti dung-yin.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Kho ri-teng-la sem-chen tsho-gi nok.	·· ···	Kho ri- <u>ts</u> e-lu no <u>ts</u> ho-do .	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Kho ta-i ting-la dong-bu-di og-la nok.		Khu aphi shing-di ok-la ta-lo zhon-ba dot-yot.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Khoi u-ju te a-ji si-na ring- po nok.	······	Khui nu-chung di sring-mu di-la thowat.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Te-yi rin-ma tang nyi tang phet yin.	····	Di rin di matang phedang sum yin.	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ngai papa khang-ba tuk-pe te-la dot-gi yot.		Ngä a p di khim chung aphi nang-lu yot.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Tang-ga di kho-la bin	••••	Khu-lu matang di bin-chik	234. Give this rupee to him.
Ţang-ga de-tsho kho-nä len		Matang di-tsho khui nang- la len-chik.	235. Take those rupees from him.
Kho-la le-mo dung-ni thak- pai ching.	•••••	Kho zhak-pa bä dung-ching tak kyap zak.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Tomba-nä chhu ling .	••••••	Om-chung nang-la chhu ok-chik.	237. Draw water from the well.
Ngai dong-la do		Ngä dun-lu gyo-chik.	238. Walk before me.
Khi gyap-la si pi-dza ong- gi nok?	•••••	Chhoi gyap-lä ga-gi bu- <u>ts</u> hu ong-bo-mo?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Khi sui <u>ts</u> a-nä nyep ?	•••	Chhoi di gag-lä nyo-yin? .	240. From whom did you buy that?
Yul-gi tahong-pa chik-nä .		Ghyong nang-lu <u>ts</u> hong- khang-dak-pa chik-lä yin.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.



HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

The northern region of the Himalayas is inhabited by Bhōṭiās or Tibetans. To the south we find a long series of tribes speaking dialects which all belong to the Tibeto-Burman family. Hodgson divided those tribes 'into two groups, distinguished by the respective use of simple or non-pronominalized, and of complex or pronominalized languages.' He made an especial study of the dialects spoken in Nepal, which State was not included in the operations of this Survey. Some of the hill-dialects of Nepal are spoken within British territory. They will be dealt with in the ensuing pages. No new materials have been forwarded about the bulk of those forms of speech, and we cannot therefore add anything to our knowledge concerning them. The remarks which follow will therefore be principally restricted to the Himalayan dialects spoken within the territory included under the operations of this Survey, and to such Nepalese languages as are also spoken within British territory. The remaining dialects will only be dealt with as a kind of appendix.

Proceeding from the west, the dialects to be considered are as follows:—

		N	ame of	the di	lost		!	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.					
		2,	anc or	the di					Local estimates.	Census of 1904.			
Manchāţī	•	•	•		•		•	•	2,995	2.441			
Chamba I	āhuļi			•	•	•		•	1,387	1,543			
Bunán	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. }	2,987	5,529			
Ranglði Kanāshi	•	•	•					•	980				
Kanāw ^a rī					•			• [13,099	19,525			
Rangkas	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	614	•••			
Darmiyā	•			•	•	•		•	1,761	•••			
Chaudāngs	31	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,485	•••			
Byāngsī	•		•				•	•	1,585	•••			
Jangali	•	•		•		•	c	•	200	•••			
Sunwār	•					•		•	5,356	5 ,265			
Gurung	•	•			•	•		•	•••	7,481			
Măgari	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		16,979	18,476			
Thāmī	•		•		•	•	•	•	100	319			
Nēwārī	•		•	•		•		•	5,979	7 ,87 3			
Pahri	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		268			
Murmi	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	36 ,8 4 8	32.167			
					Car	ried o	ver		92,355	100,887			

	•								NUMBER OF SPEAKERS.				
		N	ime of 1	the dial	ect.			Local estimates.	Census of 1904.				
				Bı	rough	t forw	ard		92,355	100,887			
Yākhā			•	•					1,250	1,366			
Limbu	•						•	• '	24,045	23,200			
Khambu	and R	ai	•	•	•	•		•	41,490	43,954			
$ m R\acute{o}ng$								•	34,894	19,291			
Dhīmāl		•		•		•		•	•••	611			
Toto .		•				•			200	170			
						To	TAL		194,234	189,479			

The above figures do not include the speakers of the various dialects in Nepal. Several of them being properly Nepalese languages, the figures can only give an imperfect idea of the number of speakers.

Speakers of three other Nepalese dialects have turned up at the last Census of 1901 within British territory. The details are as follows:—

	Nam	e of di	alect.	-		Where spoken.		Number of speakers.		
Kāmī						Assam	•			11
3hrāmu						Assam	•	•	٠	15
āyu			•	•	•	Assam (90), Bengal (24) .	•	•	•	114
Iānjhī					•	Bengal (515), Assam (387)	•		•	902
							Ton	TAL	•	1,042

Sixty-four speakers were further returned under the head of Kirāntī, viz., fifty-eight from Assam and six from the United Provinces. It is not stated which of the so-called Kirāntī dialects is meant. The number of speakers of the dialects under consideration within British territory at the last Census was accordingly 190,585.

The dialects spoken by the Kāmīs and Mānjhī do not fall within the scope of this Survey, and nothing is known about them. They will not, therefore, be dealt with in what follows.

The Kāmīs are the blacksmiths of Nepal. According to Sir Herbert Risley they are probably immigrants from India, who have intermarried freely with some of the indigenous races of Nepal. No information is available about their language. It is not, however, probable that they speak a separate dialect.

The Mānjhīs are the fishers of Western Nepal. No information is available about their dialect, if they have any.

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Tibeto-Burman forms of speech. In many of them, however, we can observe several features which are not in accordance with Tibeto-Burman principles. Thus a difference is often made between such words as denote animate beings and inanimate things, respectively; higher numbers are often counted in twenties and not in tens as is the case in Tibetan, Burmese, Chinese, Siamese, etc.; the personal pronouns often have a dual in addition to the ordinary plural, and double sets of the dual and plural of the first person, one including and the other excluding the person or persons addressed; there is in many dialects a tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb, so that a kind of regular conjugation is effected, and so forth.

In such characteristics the dialects in question have struck out lines of their own, in thorough disagreement with Tibeto-Burman, or even Indo-Chinese, principles. They have accordingly become modified in their whole structure. It is difficult to help inferring that this state of affairs must be due to the existence of an old heterogeneous substratum in the population, which has exercised an influence on the language. That old population must then have spoken dialects belonging to a different linguistic family, and the general modification of the inner structure of the actual forms of speech must be due to the fact that the leading principles of those old dialects have been engrafted on the language of the tribes in question. Now it will be observed that all those features in which the Himalayan dialects differ from other Tibeto-Burman languages are in thorough agreement with the principles prevailing in the Mundā forms of speech. It therefore seems probable that Mundās, or tribes speaking a language connected with those now in use among the Mundās, have once lived in the Himalayas and left their stamp on the dialects spoken at the present day.

The non-Tibeto-Burman characteristics mentioned above are seldom found together in one and the same form of speech, and some of the dialects under consideration have few, if any, traces of them. On the other hand, some of these features, such as the distinction between an inclusive and an exclusive plural of the first personal pronoun, have penetrated much further and are e.g. found in the Western dialects of Tibetan. If we only consider the formation of verbs, the most interesting feature of Tibeto-Burman languages, it will be found that Hodgson's classification into non-pronominalized and pronominalized languages holds good for the whole field of Himalayan philology. We shall therefore adhere to it in the ensuing pages and consider the Himalayan dialects under two different headings, non-pronominalized and pronominalized dialects.

The latter group we shall further sub-divide into two sub-groups, one comprising several dialects spoken to the east of the valley of Nepal, and the other consisting of some forms of speech in Almora and farther towards the west.

VOL. III, PART I.

NON-PRONOMINALIZED DIALECTS.

The dialects spoken in the central region of the Himalayas in Sikkim and in the valley of Nepal and to the east of it are all characterized by a great simplicity in their grammatical system. Some of them, such as Gurung and Murmī, are closely related to the Tibetan dialects. Murmī has, however, abandoned the Tibeto-Burman method of counting higher numbers in tens and reckons them in twenties. There also seems to be a tendency to distinguish the subject of verbs by adding pronominal suffixes. The negative verb is formed in Gurung and Murmī by prefixing an \bar{a} and often, besides, suffixing a na. A similar double negative is also used in Róng.

The dialect spoken by the Sunwārs is apparently now characterized by the same simplicity as in the case of Gurung and Murmī. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. There are short forms of the personal pronouns which are frequently used as prefixes. The person of the subject does not appear to be distinguished in the verb. The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Hodgson describes Sunwār as a complex pronominalized dialect. So far as we can judge from the unsatisfactory materials at our disposal, that is no more the case at the present day.

Mãgarī is a dialect of the same type. The pronoun of the second person is nang as in Nepalese dialects such as Chēpāng and Bhrāmu, and in numerous dialects of Assam and Further India, especially (for instance) in the Kuki-Chin forms of speech. Compare also $k\bar{a}n$ -ko, we, with $k\bar{a}n$, our, in most Kuki-Chin dialects. Compare further the numerals Mãgarī, kat, Lushēi pa-khat, one; Mãgarī bu-li, Lushēi pa-li, four; Mãgarī ba-nga, Lushēi pa-nga, five. In most respects, however, Mãgarī agrees with Gurung, Murmī, etc., in general principles, and, to a great extent, also in details of vocabulary and grammar. The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$.

Māgarī often also agrees with Nēwārī, the old State language of Nepal. In that form of speech we again find a distinction between nouns denoting animate beings and inanimate objects respectively. The numerals and the personal pronouns have forms which agree with those in use in the western, pronominalized, group of Himalayan languages. Compare *chhi*, Pahrī *thiki*, one, with Bunān *tiki*; nasi, Pahrī nhisi, two, with Byāngsī nisi; pi, four, with Bunān, etc., pi; ji, I, with Byāngsī, etc., ji, and so forth. Nēwārī is not, however, a pronominalized dialect, but is characterized by the same simplicity as Māgarī and connected forms of speech.

Pahrī can be considered as a sub-dialect of Nēwārī.

There still remains one important language of the non-pronominalized type, viz., Rong or Lepcha. We here again find the tendency to distinguish between such nouns as denote animate beings and such as are the names of inanimate things. The numerals often agree very closely with those in use in the Kuki-Chin group. Compare $k\bar{a}t$, Lushēi pa-khat, one; nyet, Ngentē pa-nhit, two; fa-li, Lushēi pa-li, four; ta-rok, Meithei, etc., $ta-r\bar{u}k$, six, and so forth. The prefix \bar{a} , which is very common in nouns and adjectives, should be compared with the corresponding a in Kuki-Chin, while the ka-prefix in ka- $l\bar{u}t$, bare, etc., is very common in dialects of the Nāgā and Bodo group. It will be seen that the old prefixes have been preserved as independent syllables in Rong, and that language in this respect forms one of the links which connect Tibetan and the Himalayan dialects with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Further India.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties. The person of the subject is not indicated in the verb, and Róng is thus a typical dialect of the non-pronominalized type. The negative verb is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing ne; compare Gurung and Murmī.

The Toto dialect will be dealt with after Róng because it does not make any use of pronominal suffixes. Our materials are, however, so imperfect that it is impossible to say anything for certain about its affiliation. The numerals are almost pure Tibetan. The personal pronouns are almost the same as in Dhīmāl. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

It has already been remarked that Hodgson classed Sunwar as a pronominalized dialect. Several characteristic features of the pronominalized group of Himalayan languages have also been traced in other dialects such as Murma and Newari. It is perhaps allowable to infer that all, or most, of the non-pronominalized Himalayan dialects have once belonged to the pronominalized group, but have, in the course of time, given up most of the characteristic features of the group, under the influence of the neighbouring Tibetan dialects.

GURUNG.

The Gurungs are one of the best fighting tribes of Nepal. They are classed together with the Khas, the Magar, and the Sunwar castes as mukhya, or chief. Their old home is a tract of country between the Bheri and Marsyandi rivers, to the north of the Magars. In modern times they have spread all over Nepal, and also to Darjeeling and Sikkim. Speakers have also been returned from Assam.

No local estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901, Gurung was returned as follows:

		_												
Assam	•		•			•	•		•	•	•	•	•	1,339
Bengal a	and Feuda	atori	es:—											
	Jalpaigu	ri		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	224	
	Darjeelin	$\mathbf{n}\mathbf{g}$		•	•	•		•				•	4,132	
	Chittago	ng J	Hill Tr	acts	•	•		•	•	•			4	
	Sikkim	•					•	•	•	•	•	•	1,782	
														$6,\!142$
													_	
										\mathbf{T}	TAL			7,481
													-	

in Assam the Gurungs were most numerous in Lakhimpur (501) and in the Naga Hills (266). We have no information regarding the number of speakers in Nepal.

The Gurungs of Western Nepal are still Buddhists. Elsewhere they are gradually being Hinduized, and there is, at the same time, a distinct tendency among them to abandon their old dialect in favour of Khas. Thus 2,721 out of a total of 4,502 Gurungs in Sikkim returned their language as Khas at the last Census.

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map showing the distribution of Indian languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Gurung, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,-A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

The Nepal Darbar has been kind enough to supply a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Gurung. The remarks which follow are based on them.

In vocabulary and phonetical system, and also in grammatical principles, Gurung is more closely related to Tibetan than are most Himalayan languages.

Pronunciation.—It is often difficult to decide whether a vowel is long or short, the spelling of the specimens being inconsistent. It seems probable that Gurung in this respect agrees with Central Tibetan.

The diphthong ou is often written eou after y; thus, $yeo\tilde{u}$ -ba, getting.

We have no information regarding the pronunciation of the sound which I have transliterated as an Anunasika. It sometimes interchanges with n; thus, $dh\tilde{o}$ and dhon, beat.

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The consonantal system is apparently nearly the same as in Aryan dialects such as Hindi. The aspirated soft consonants have apparently developed from older unaspirated sounds. Compare gho, classical Tibetan rgyab, back; $dh\tilde{o}$, classical Tibetan rdung, beat. The aspiration is so marked that such sounds are commonly pronounced as the corresponding hard unaspirated letters. Compare pra and bhra, hundred; $k\tilde{o}$ -ye, classical Tibetan gon, cloth; cha, classical Tibetan za, eat; sa-ba, classical Tibetan bzang-ba, good.

The final consonants of classical Tibetan have usually been dropped. Compare phe, classical pheb-pa, to come; mi, classical mig, eye; gho, classical rgyng, run; ā-gu, classical grogs, friend; pre, classical brgyad, eight; so, classical gson, alive; pî, classical sbyin, give; dhō, classical rdung, beat, and so on.

There are several compound consonants such as ghr, kr; bhr, pr; ghl, kl; bhl, pl; mr; mn, and so on. Compare $ghr\bar{\imath}$ and kri, one; bhre and pre, eight; ghlo, place; $kl\bar{\imath}$, divide, and so on. Our materials are not, however, sufficient for a full description of the relationship between Gurung and classical Tibetan in this respect. In most cases, it is true, old compounds have been simplified; thus, ta, classical rta, horse; so, classical gson, alive; $dh\tilde{o}$, classical rdung, beat; na, classical sna, nose; nha, classical rna, ear; $p\tilde{\imath}$, classical sbyin, give; le, classical lche, tongue, etc. In other cases the assimilation is only partial. Thus, pra, classical brgya, hundred; pre, classical brgyad, eight; $kur\tilde{a}$, classical sgra, word. Various changes have taken place during this process of assimilation. Compare $ghr\tilde{\imath}$, classical gchig, one; bhli, classical bzhi, four, etc.

It is not, in this place, possible to do more than to draw attention to the existence of a series of phonetical laws regulating the relationship between Gurung and classical Tibetan. It would be necessary to have at our disposal much fuller materials in order to trace those laws in detail.

Tones and accent are probably the same as in other Nepal languages.

Article.—There is no article. The numeral $ghr\bar{\imath}$, one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $mh\bar{\imath}$ $ghr\bar{\imath}$, a man.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} is common before nouns of relationship. Thus, \bar{a} -ba, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{i}$, brother. It also occurs in other words such as \bar{a} -gu, companion.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or else by adding suffixes such as bokya, dho, $d\bar{a}rhy\bar{a}$, male; mama, me, murli, female. Thus, \bar{a} - $l\bar{\iota}$, younger brother; \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, younger sister: $b\bar{a}$ -sat- $lhy\bar{a}$, bull; mhe, cow: jha. son; jha-me, daughter: ta, horse; ta ma-ma, mare: na-ki dho, dog; na-ki ma-ma, bitch: ra bokya, he goat; ra ma-ma, she goat: fo $d\bar{a}rhy\bar{a}$, male deer; fo murli, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. In other cases words such as mae, many, jaga, all, and so on, are added. Thus \bar{a} -ba-mae, fathers; na-ki jaga, dogs. Forms such as $k\tilde{o}$ -ye, clothes; ma-ye, kisses, perhaps contain another plural suffix ye.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any separate suffix.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding a suffix ji or di; thus, \bar{a} -ba-di $b\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{i}$, the father said; ki-ji $ho\bar{a}$ -ji, thou struckest.

This suffix is sometimes also written de, and in that case it looks like the postposition $d\tilde{e}$ or $d\tilde{e}$, classical Tibetan dang, with which, in its turn, is sometimes written di. The initial d of the suffix of the agent is often pronounced as a th. Compare the remarks under the head of pronunciation above.

In chhu-ba-si, with ropes, the instrument has been indicated by adding a suffix si. The suffix of the dative is $l\bar{a}-di$ or $l\bar{a}i$; thus, $\bar{a}-ba-l\bar{a}di$, to a father. Such forms are sometimes also used to denote the object of transitive verbs; thus, $cha-ejha-l\bar{a}-di$ nga-di dhon-di, his son-to me-by struck, I have beaten his son.

The usual suffix of the genitive is e or ye; thus, $dh\tilde{i}$ -ye, of the house. After i we sometimes find a instead; thus, \bar{a} -ba ghri-a, of a father. An a preceding the genitive suffix is often dropped; thus ti-be ghlo-ri, living-of place-in, in the place where he stayed.

Another genitive suffix is la; thus, \bar{a} -ba-mae-la, of fathers. It is probably originally a dative suffix; compare chiti-la, to senses. Such forms can also be considered as terminatives. The usual terminative-locative suffix is, however, $r\bar{\imath}$ or re; thus, mno- $r\bar{\imath}$, in the field, to the field. Instead of $r\bar{\imath}$ we also find $rey\bar{a}$; thus, yo- $rey\bar{a}$, on his hands.

The suffix na in forms such as pho-de-pho-de-na, with hunger; $rhe-g\tilde{u}-na$, from a distance; saba-na, safely, is probably an ablative suffix.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $d\tilde{e}$, de, and di, with, to; $h\tilde{a}$ - $r\bar{i}$, near, with; huinle, hundi, from; jara- $r\bar{i}$, under; lidi, after, behind; $m\bar{a}$, in, among; $n\tilde{i}$, before; nu- $r\bar{i}$, inside, into; $pher\bar{i}$, on; thum- $r\bar{i}$, on the top of, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, or precede it in the genitive; thus, mhi sa-ba, a good man; the-be anikāl, a heavy famine. Sometimes, however, we find forms such as ā-sa-ba puin-jha-jha ghri, bad boy one, a bad boy; tārgyā ta-e kathi, white horse's saddle.

Adjectives usually take the suffix ba; thus, sa-ba, good; sim-ba, cold; kro-ba, hot; $m\bar{\imath}-va$, ripe.

The particle of comparison is $bhand\bar{a}$; thus, $cha-ma-e ring bhand\bar{a} cha-ma-e \bar{a}-l\bar{\iota}$ $nu-ba mu-l\bar{a}$, his sister than his brother tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. $Bhand\bar{a}$ is a Naipālī loan-word.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. Higher numbers are counted in tens; thus, bhlī-chyu, forty; tu-chyu, sixty; nī-chyu, seventy; bhre-chyu, eighty; ku-chyu, ninety.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nga, I.	ki, thou.	cha, ocha, he.
nga-ji, nga-di, ngai,	ki- ji , ki - di , by thee.	cha-ji, cha-di, cha-i,
by me.	ki-ye, ki-la, thy.	by him.
nga-e, nga-la, my.	nha-mae (jaga), you.	cha-ye, cha-maye, his.
ngi-jag, nheo-jaga, we. ngi-ji, nheo-di, by us.	nhamae-ji, nha-me	
nheo jaga-la, our.	nhame, nhamae jaga- la, your.	cha-mae jaga-di, by them.

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The list of words contains several other forms. Thus, cha-man, we, in No. 165; ki-n, thou; cha-n, he; $ky\bar{a}\text{-}mae$, they, and so on. Cha-man is probably due to a mistake. The form seems to mean 'they.' $Ky\bar{a}\text{-}mae$ is probably only another way of writing cha-mae. The final n in some of the forms just quoted is probably an intensifying particle. Compare Tibetan ni.

Reflexive pronouns are khi-ye, own; thama, thama-ye, thame, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are chu, this; cha, that.

Interrogative pronouns are khae-pa- $ch\bar{a}$, who? lit. who that? to and to-cha, what? ta-le, why? kati, how much? Hodgson also gives $s\bar{u}$, who? The indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, khae-ba-de, by anybody; $tay\bar{\imath}$, anything, and, according to Hodgson, also $s\bar{u}$ - $y\bar{a}ng$, anybody; ta- $y\bar{a}ng$, anything. The two last mentioned pronouns contain an indefinite particle $y\bar{a}$ or $y\bar{a}ng$. Compare $ghr\bar{\imath}$ - $y\bar{a}$, one even; $khay\bar{\imath}$ - $y\bar{a}$, ever; $lh\bar{a}$ -so- $y\bar{a}$, still.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is relatively simple. There is no change for person or number, and the verb is, on the whole, still virtually a noun.

Verb substantive.—The most common verb substantive is mu. Another base na is used in form such as $t\tilde{o}$ -si na-bu, am, art, or is, beating. A third base is ta or tu in ta-di, is; $t\tilde{u}$ -di, am; tab-mu, shall be; nga $l\bar{a}la$ tum-mu, I should be, and so forth. In \bar{a} -gi- $l\tilde{a}$, I am not, we apparently have a fourth base gi.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive is, to some extent, used in the conjugation of finite verbs.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, nha-me jaga-di $t\tilde{o}$, you strike. M or ma, i.e., probably the verb substantive mv, is, however, very commonly added. Thus, ngai $t\tilde{o}$ -am, I strike; nga hya-m, I go; ngi hya-ma, we go. Forms such as chha-se-m, he is grazing; ti-si-m, he lives; kha-si-m, he comes, are formed by adding the same m to the conjunctive participle. Compare also ti-si-mv-ta, he is sitting; ki $t\tilde{o}$ -si na-bu, thou strikest, and so forth. The suffix ta in mv-ta, is, was, is probably a general assertive suffix, and is not restricted with regard to time.

Past time.—The suffix $l\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{a}$ is often used with the meaning of a past; thus, $nga\ hy\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{a}$, I went; $kha\cdot l\bar{a}$, he came. In $ti\cdot le$, they remained, le is used in the same way.

The suffix $b\bar{a}$ in la- $b\bar{a}$, madest, is properly the suffix of a participle. Compare Tibetan pa, ba.

The most characteristic suffix of the past is ji or di; thus, $ho\bar{a}$ -ji, went; $b\bar{i}$ -di, said. Forms such as la-sem, did; \bar{a} -ngwe-sem, I did not transgress, seem to contain the conjunctive participle ending in si and the verb substantive.

Future.—The suffix of the future is mu, or ma, i.e., probably the verb substantive; thus, $ngai\ to\text{-}mu$, I shall strike; $khi\text{-}ji\ ho\bar{a}\text{-}ma$, thou wilt strike.

Imperative.—The base alone is often used as an imperative. Thus, $p\tilde{\imath}$, give; $t\tilde{o}$, beat. A very common suffix is du, which often occurs in an abbreviated form d or t; thus, cha-du, eat; si-d, die; $r\tilde{a}-t$, stand. Lago, come; lu, well, let us, contain a suffix u or o.

Verbal nouns and participles.—A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $b\bar{a}$; thus, $n\bar{a}cha\ la-b\bar{a}$, dance making, dancing; $chha-ba-r\bar{\imath}$, in order to graze.

Forms such as $c\hbar a \cdot l\bar{a}$, to eat; $pl\tilde{i} \cdot la$, to fill, probably contain the same suffix as we have found in use in the formation of the tenses, or else la is a dative suffix.

The verbal noun ending in $b\bar{a}$ is also used as a relative participle, in which case it usually precedes the qualified noun in the genitive; thus, dukha ta-be bela-ri, distress befalling time-at, at the time when distress befell him; $j\bar{a}y\bar{i}r$ cha-be mhi, wages eating man, servant. The same participle is also used in such relative clauses as are introduced by an interrogative pronoun; thus, nga-la to mu-ba, me-to what being, all that is mine.

The form ending in ba is sometimes also used with the meaning of a conjunctive participle; thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ -ba, having said.

The most common conjunctive participle ends in si; thus, la-si, having done; ghyo-si, running.

Another conjunctive participle is formed by adding the postposition $m\bar{a}$ to a verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, $b\bar{\imath}-m\bar{a}$, on saying, having said.

The tense bases are also used as participles; thus, ti-sim mu- $l\bar{a}$, is sitting; $s\bar{i}$ -la, dead.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me,' and so forth.

Causative.—There is only one certain instance of a causative. It is formed by aspirating the initial consonant; thus, cha-ba, to eat; chha-ba, to feed.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} -hy \bar{a} , he did not go; \bar{a} - $p\tilde{i}$, didst not give. Na is sometimes added to the verb. Thus, \bar{a} -yeo \tilde{u} -na, he did not get.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives follow the word they qualify or precede it in the genitive. Numerals follow, and demonstrative pronouns and genitives precede the word they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 254 and ff.

[No. 17.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

GURUNG.

(NEPAL.)

Mhī ghri-ye jha nhī mu-lā. Cha jha nhī-mā jha cheoũ-ba ā-ba-dě, Man one-of sons two were. Those sons two-among son younger father-to, 'nga-ye yeoũ-ba bhāgā-ansa klī-bhīn,' bī-mā ā-ba-di ansa kli-bhen-di. getting portion-share divide,' having-said father-by share divided-gave. Bhanā-nhīse jha cheoũ-ba-di saye nhura bayā-si, rhegũ Short-afterwards sonyounger-by we althpropertytaking, farparadesa hyā-si, cha-ri moja la-si ți-si cha-di khi-ye ansa cha-ri-na other-country going, there pleasure doing living him-by thereudi-di-wa-di. Cha-ye sampati kharcha la-si khã-be lidi cha tī-be squandered. ${\it His}$ property spentmaking coming after heliving-of the-be anikal talã; cha-lā ā-yeoũ-na. Dukha ta-be $bela-r\bar{i}$ great famine occurred; to-eat not-got. Distress falling-of time-at desar-be mhī ghrī h \widetilde{a} -rī hyā-si tī-si cha sahar-rī mhī-dī that country-of man one withgoing living that town-in living-of man-by cha-lā-dī khī-ye mno-rī tili chha-ba-rī lhe-di-lã. Khae-ba-de ā-pī-nā. himfield-in swine grazing-for applied. Anyone-by anything not-gave. Cha cha-be dhuțo-de cha-ye pho plĩ-la ā-yeoũ-na. Chiti la $swine-by \quad eating-of \quad husks-with$ Those hisbelly to-fill not-got. Sense-to kh $\tilde{\bar{a}}$ -si bī-ba-rī h \tilde{o} -dī, 'nga-ye \bar{a} -ba-ye prasuta ghệ cha-si ngaye-baye coming to-say 'my father-of sufficient bread having-eaten began, to-spare yeoũ-bā kati-kati mhī mu-lā, nga pho-de-pho-de-na jāgir-cha-be si-la tũ-di. getting how-many wages-eating man were, Ihunger-with dying am. Nga rī-si ā-bā hã-ri hyā-si, "ye ā-ba, prameśvara ra kī-ye phi-rī I rising father going, near " O father, Godand thy before nga-dī pāpa $la-l\tilde{a}$. Ki-ye jha dhö-bā a-gi-la. Nga-lādī tīsio-re jāgīra sin committed. me-by Thysonlikenot-became. Menow wages cha-be mhī dhõ-bā ladu," bī-mu,' bī-ba thama-ye ā-ba $h\tilde{a}$ -rī hyā-dī. eating man likemake," will-say, saying own father towent. Cha jha rhegũ-na mro-mã chama-ye ā-ba-di mhayā kha-si ghyo-si That son far-from seeinghis father-by compassion coming running cha-lā-dī gardana-rī ākhala-jheõ-si hyā-si maye cha-dī. Jha-dī ā-ba-dī bī-dī. going himneck-in embracing kissate. Son-by father-to said, VOL. III, PART I. 2 в 2

'pramesvara ra kī-ye pāpa la-di. Nga kī-ye jha dhö-bā ā-gi-la.' Thama-ve ' God and thy sindid.I thy son like not-became.' Hisā-ba-dī \mathbf{thama} gheba-lā-dī bī-dī, 'lu, chhyãbe kõve bha-si khi-bhin. father-by own servants-to said, 'well, beautiful clothes bringing put-on. Yo-reyā aŭthi khi-bhin, bhali-re juttā khī-bhīn. Lu, nheo-jaga cha-si Hand-on ringput, feet-on shoesput. Well,we-all eating thum-si majāk la-le. Ta-le bī-syā, cha nga-ye jha si-la, pherī drinking merry shall-make. Why saying, thatmysondied,again kha-di; mha-lā, yeō-dī.' $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{a}$ la-si ti-le. reviving came; was-lost, was-got.' Joy making remained.

Cha-ye jha the-bā mno-rī mu-lā. Kha-si dhĩ-ye jhedu phe-mā Hisbigsonfield-in Coming house-of near arriving-on was.bājā-nhā-bā nā**c**ha-la-bā the-mā chākara ghrī-lā-dī huī-si, 'to cha?' music-playing dance-making hearing-on servant one-to calling, `whatthat?' nyū-mā, "nha-me sabana ā-lī kha-lã," bī-si nha-me ā-ba-dī saying asking-on, "your brother safely came," sayingyour father-by bhatyār ghrī la-sem,' bī-si tha-ma-ye ghe-ba-di bī-mā, cha ris kha-si feast made,' saying oneservant-by saying-on, he anger owncoming dhĩ nu-ri ā-hyā. Tha-me ā-bā bāhīra yū-si tha-me jha-lā-dī hwã-di. house within not-went. Own father outside coming ownson-to coaxed. Tha-ma-ye ā-ba-lā-dī jha-dī jabāba pī-dī, 'nhedu, jou berkha samma tī-si father-to son-by answer gave, 'lo, so-many years up-to living ghe-la-si khayõyā kī-dī bi-be kurā nga-dī ā-ngwe-sem, dasevā kī-dī ever thee-by said word me-by work-doing not-transgressed, stillthee-by khavõ-mule nga-lā-dī ā-gu-de ti-si majāk la-ba-rī ra jha-jha ghrī-yā me-to friends-with staying merry making-for goat young one-even ever-even ți-si kī-ye saye-nhura cha-be jha-lā-dī kī-dī bhatyār Besyā-de ā-pĩ. not-gavest. Harlots-with living thy property eating son-to thee-by feast ā-ba-dī bī-dī, 'ye la-bā. Tha-me jha. kī nga-d**ë**-na mu. Nga-la to madest.' father-by said, 'O Hisson, thou me-with Mine what art. mu-ba, kī-lã tadi. Nheő-di majāk la-si save tõ-sī thik mu-la. Ta-le merry making glad becoming proper was. thineUs-bybeing, is.Why bī-svã, chu ki-ye ā-lī sī-la, so-sī kha-dī; mha-la, pheri brother died, living came; was-lost, again was-found. thysaying,

MURMI.

The Murmis claim to be among the earliest settlers of Nepal. According to Sir Herbert Risley, 'their physical characteristics, and the fact that their exogamous divisions (thars) bear Tibetan names, seem to lend support to the opinion that they are descended from a Tibetan stock, modified more or less by intermixture with Nepalese races.'

The Murmis are also known under other names, such as Tāmāng Bhōṭiā, Ishāng, and Sain.

The home of the Murmi tribe is the valley of Nepal and its whole vicinity. They are further found in considerable numbers in Darjeeling and Sikkim.

We have no information about the number of speakers in Nepal. Their number in Darjeeling and Sikkim was estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

Darjeeling Sikkim														
	•	•	-	•	-	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	10.000
											То	TAL		36,848

At the last Census of 1901, Murmi was returned from the following districts:—

Assam	•			•							•		105
Bengal and Feuda	atories	•	•	•		•						. 9	32,062
Jalpaig u ri	•	•	•	•						. 1	,582		ĺ
Darjeeling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			. 25	.165		
Sikkim .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 5	,315		
										_			
										Тота	L	. :	32,167

The Census figures show that the local estimates from Sikkim are considerably above the mark.

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a Map shewing the Distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Murmi.

Hunter, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Dalton, Edward Tuite,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Murmi vocabulary after Campbell and Hodgson.

Specimens of Murmi have been forwarded from Nepal and Darjeeling. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases from Nepal and a popular tale from Darjeeling will be reproduced below. The materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are the only basis of the remarks on Murmi grammar which follow.

Murmi is very closely related to Gurung. Like that latter form of speech it is more intimately connected with Tibetan than are most other Himalayan dialects.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is mainly the same as in Gurung. Forms such as $kw\bar{a}n$, Tibetan gon, cloth; $ch\bar{a}$, Tibetan za, eat; pli and bli, Tibetan bzhi, four; pre and bre, Tibetan brgyad, eight, and so forth, in which hard and soft consonants interchange, seem to show that the soft consonants of Tibetan have developed into soft aspirates, and further into hard sounds.

The final consonants of classical Tibetan have been retained to a greater extent than is the case in Gurung. Thus, rop, Tibetan rgyab, beat; sat, Tibetan gsod, kill; thung, Tibetan thung, drink; kwān, Tibetan gon, cloth. There is, however, the same tendency to drop such sounds as is observed in Gurung. Compare thā-ring, Tibetan thag-ring, far; rho, Tibetan grogs, friend; so, Tibetan gson, alive; the, Tibetan thos, hear; mui, Tibetan dngul, mul, silver.

There are several compound consonants such as kl, gl, pl, bl, ml, kr, gr, pr, br, mr, ky, gy, jy, and so forth. Thus, the $kl\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} -ri, that place in; $gl\bar{a}$ -gi-ri-n, place-one-in, with; pli and bli, four; $mr\bar{a}ng$, see; kyang-no, all, and so forth. Many old compounds have, however, been simplified. G has been dropped in compounds such as gr, gs, and rgy; thus, rho, classical Tibetan grogs, friend; so, classical gson, alive; sat, classical gsod, kill; rop, classical rgyab, beat; pre, classical brgyad, eight. Initial r and s have been dropped in forms such as $t\bar{a}$, classical rta, horse; $rh\bar{a}$, classical rna, nose; ra, classical ra, hair; ra, classical ra, give. Note also ra, classical ra, tongue; ra, classical ra, ra, classical ra, ra, classical ra, ra, classical ra, hair; ra, classical ra, ra, classical ra, ra, ra, classical ra, hair; ra, classical ra, ra, ra, classical ra, r

Mr apparently corresponds to classical mth in mrāng, Tibetan mthong-ba, see; mrin, Tibetan mthon-po, full. Compare Burmese mrang, to see; mrüng, to be full.

There is apparently also a certain connexion between dhim, tim, and Tibetan khyim, a house.

We have no information about tones or accentuation.

Article.—There are no articles, but the numeral ki, gi, one, is often used as a kind of indefinite article; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ -ki, a father; $jhy\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ ki mhi, a good man; ki $jhy\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ mi- $l\bar{a}$, of a good man. It will be seen that ki sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the qualified noun.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} is common in words denoting relationship; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, younger brother; \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, younger sister; \bar{a} -gu, uncle.

Gender.—The natural gender can be distinguished by using different words or by adding words such as $hv\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, male; me and $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, female; thus, mhi, man; $mring-kol\bar{a}$, woman: $jh\bar{a}$, son; jha-me, daughter: $t\bar{a}$, horse; $t\bar{a}-m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, mare: $t\bar{a}ngi\ hv\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, male deer; $t\bar{a}ngi\ m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, female deer.

Numbers.—The number is not indicated if it appears from the context. If it is necessary to distinguish the plural, words such as $k\bar{a}de$, $k\bar{a}te$, or $g\bar{a}de$, many; dugu (Tibetan dgu), many, are added. Thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}de$, fathers; $ch\bar{a}kara$ dugu, servants.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding se; thus, $ch\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$ -se $p\bar{a}n$ -ji, the younger-by said, the younger said. Instead of se we sometimes find chhe; thus, $\bar{a}p$ -chhe, by the father. In $ph\bar{a}yen$ -ji, from hunger, hungering, ji appears to have been used instead. Compare Gurung. The same suffix is also used to denote the instrument. Thus, chho-se, with ropes. The form

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 $ny\bar{a}i$, by me, seems to show that the suffix of this case is originally s, which has become i after a preceding vowel.

The suffix of the dative is $d\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ ki- $d\bar{a}$, to a father; $ch\bar{a}kara$ - $t\bar{a}$, to a servant. This form is sometimes also used as an accusative; thus, the- $t\bar{a}$ jha- $t\bar{a}$ rop-chi. his son-to struck, I have beaten his son.

The suffix of the genitive is $l\bar{a}$; compare Gurung. Thus, $ansa-bh\bar{a}g-l\bar{a}$, of the share. A locative and terminative is formed by adding ri as in Gurung; thus, $y\bar{a}mbun\bar{a}g-ri$, in a city; dim-ri, in the house; $kh\bar{a}re-ri$, upon the neck.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $\bar{a}ng$ -ri, into; $chhy\bar{a}m$ and den- $chhy\bar{a}m$, with, together with; den, $d\tilde{e}$, with; dhiri, under; $ky\bar{a}m$, $ky\bar{a}mse$, from; $l\bar{a}gi$, for; $m\bar{a}$, in, among; $th\bar{a}ri$, upon, against; yenchhe and yenji, from, and so forth. Some postpositions are added to the genitive; thus, li- $chh\bar{a}$ and li-sang, behind; $ng\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, behind; nindi-ri, for the sake of.

A suffix b or p of uncertain meaning occurs in several words such as cheta-p ta-si-jin-ji, having come to senses; chhutya-p ta-si, division making; $th\bar{o}b\bar{a}$ -b $t\bar{a}$ -ji, engaged; $m\bar{a}nasi$ -b $t\bar{a}$ -si, it became proper; $pheri\bar{a}$ -b \bar{a} -si, coming outside; uda-b $t\bar{a}$ -si, squandered.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. They very commonly end in $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$; thus, $jhy\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, good; $k\bar{a}m-b\bar{a}$, bitter; $le-p\bar{a}$, hot; $min-b\bar{a}$, ripe; $no-b\bar{a}$, tall; $reng-b\bar{a}$, green; $sim-b\bar{a}$, cold; $tum-b\bar{a}$, short. There are, however, also other suffixes in use; thus, $\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}m-na$, unable; $ky\bar{a}ng-no$, all; $th\bar{a}-cho$, straight; kok-teng, crooked; $ml\bar{a}ngai$, black; $t\bar{a}ra$, white; $b\bar{a}la$, red.

The particle of comparison is given as oisi; thus, $the-l\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-le$ $the-l\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$ oisi $no-b\bar{a}$ $mu-l\bar{a}$, his brother is taller than his sister. It is, however, possible that the initial o in oi-si is a miswriting for w; compare Purik vasang.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. Instead of ki, gi, one, the texts received from Darjeeling give gik and jik. The form nhi, two, has been taken from the same source. In other cases where two different forms are given in the list, the last one has been taken from a list of numerals added at the end of the version of the Parable received from the Nepal Darbar. That latter source also gives forms such as $ch\tilde{u}$ -gri, eleven; $ch\tilde{u}$ -ngi, twelve; $ch\tilde{u}$ -som, thirteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -pli, fourteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, fifteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -tu, sixteen; $ch\tilde{u}$ -nis, seventeen; chva-bre, eighteen; chva-bre, nineteen.

The higher numbers are counted in twenties. The list of numerals just mentioned, however, gives ngi-seb, twenty; som-seb, thirty; pli-seb, forty; ngā-seb, fifty; tu-seb, sixty; nis-seb, seventy; bre-seb, eighty; ku-seb, ninety; chiu-seb, hundred. Chui and chiu, ten, point to the pronunciation chü.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are inflected like nouns. The principal forms of the personal pronouns will be seen from the table which follows:—

	Ι.	We.	- Thou.	You.	He.	They.
Nom.	. ngā	ngā-ni	ye, ai	ye-ni	the	the-ni, thon-jyābā.
Genit.	. ngā-lā	ngān-chhe, ngāl-je ngā-ni kāde-lā, ngān-nā.	ye-s e ye-la	yen-chhe yen-nā	the-se	then-chhi.

Forms such as $yeni \ k\bar{a}te$, you; $theni-k\bar{a}te-se$, by them, and so forth, of course also occur. Forms such as hoju, he; $hot-l\bar{a}$, his; hochhe, by him, have been recorded from Darjeeling.

Demonstrative pronouns are chu, this; the, u-chu, ho-ju, ho- $j\bar{a}$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $kh\bar{a}$ and $h\bar{a}l\bar{a}$, who? $tig\bar{a}$, $tik\bar{a}$, and ki, what? $k\bar{a}de$, how many? and so forth. By adding the indefinite particle nu or no indefinite pronouns are effected; thus, $kh\bar{a}l$ -che-nu, by anyone; tiki-no, anything; $kh\bar{a}i$ -mā-ye-no, ever.

Note also the reflexive pronoun $r\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$ or $rh\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$, own.

Verbs.—The verb is still virtually a noun. The list of words gives forms such as ni-n, goest, where the final n seems to be a pronominal suffix of the second person. The suffix m in forms such as pin-ji-m, he gave, in the Darjeeling specimens, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person. It is, however, more probable that this m is simply the verb substantive. The use of pronominal suffixes is, at all events, no regular feature of Murmi, though it is possible that there is a tendency to distinguish the various persons of the verb. Such a tendency is observable in several connected dialects. It is also possible to suggest the influence of other dialects in which the use of personal suffixes is quite regular.

Verb substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is mu, present mu- $l\bar{a}$, past mu- $b\bar{a}$. Other forms are supplied from other bases such as $t\bar{a}$, to become; re, to stand. In the ki ni, that what is? we have a base ni. Another base ke apparently occurs in ye- $l\bar{a}$ -ke, it is thine.

Finite verbs.—The verb substantive is freely used in the formation of the tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present tense. Thus, ye-ni mu, we go.

The most common suffix of the present is apparently $l\bar{a}$; thus, $mu-l\bar{a}$, am; $rop-l\bar{a}$, strike.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$ in forms such as the-se rop- $p\bar{a}$, he strikes; $chh\bar{a}$ -se chi- $b\bar{a}$, having grazed sits, he is grazing, corresponds to Tibetan pa or ba and does not contain any special notion of time.

Forms such as si-la-ji, I die; ha-ji, he comes; rop-chi, thou strikest; $ng\bar{a}$ -ni ni-sai, we go, and so forth, apparently contain the same suffix as that which is generally used with the meaning of a past. A similar use of the suffix of past time is not uncommon in connected forms of speech. It is perhaps due to the intention of the speaker to represent the action of the verb as an established fact.

Past time.—The usual suffix of past time is ji as in Gurung; thus, $p\bar{a}n-ji$, he said; ni-ji, he went. Instead of ji we sometimes find chi; thus, rop-chi, I have beaten. Chi is perhaps the correct form after hard consonants.

An m is sometimes added in the specimens received from Darjeeling. Thus, ngyok-chhi-m, he asked; pin-ji-m, he gave. Such forms are apparently only used in the third person.

Forms such as rop, struck; $p\bar{a}ng-b\bar{a}$, said; $khu-b\bar{a}$, boughtest, and so on, are indefinite with regard to time.

Ngae rop chi jin-ji, I had beaten, perhaps means 'I struck finished.'

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Future.—The present suffix $l\bar{a}$ is also used with the meaning of a future; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-l\bar{a}$, I shall say. Forms such as $maj\bar{a}-la\bar{\imath}$, let us make merry, are perhaps imperative.

Imperative.—The usual suffixes of the imperative are u or o and go; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -u, eat; re-go, stand; rob-ko, beat. Other sources also give imperatives such as rob, beat; yar, run, and so forth, where no suffix is added.

The form laī, let us make, has already been mentioned.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun ends in $b\bar{a}$; thus, $chh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, to graze; $kh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-se$, by his coming, because he came; $kh\bar{a}-b\bar{a}-chhy\bar{a}m$, comingwith, when he came; $mrin-b\bar{a}-ri$, filling to, to fill. It will be seen that postpositions can be added to such forms.

The base alone is also used as a verbal noun; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $kh\bar{a}m$ -na, to-eat unable.

Other verbal nouns are formed by adding $l\bar{a}$, nu, sam, and si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, to be; $t\bar{a}$ -sam (Darjeeling), to be; $l\bar{a}$ -nu (Darjeeling), to make; $l\bar{a}$ -si, to make.

• $T\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, to be, is perhaps a genitive. Compare $ng\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ $y\bar{a}ng$ - $l\bar{a}$ ansa- $bh\bar{a}g$, me-by getting• of share, the share which I shall get. Forms such as $t\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ jhin-ji, having been, perhaps contain the same suffix and a postposition jhin-ji, finishing, from, after. Compare, however, the suffix $l\bar{a}$ of the present and future.

The form ending in $b\bar{a}$ is also used as a relative participle; thus, $darm\bar{a}$ -ri ti- $b\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}kara$ -dugu, wages-in living servants, hired servants.

Another suffix used to form relative participles is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $yenn\bar{a}$ sampati $ch\bar{a}$ -si $pin-n\bar{a}$ chu $yenn\bar{a}$ kol \bar{a} , your property having-eaten giving this your son; this your son who wasted your property.

The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is also used to form a kind of adverbial participle. Thus, $kath\bar{a}$ the- $n\bar{a}$ $l\bar{a}m$ - $b\bar{a}$, tale delivering sat, he sat delivering a tale; ti-ki \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, anything not befalling, without any misfortune.

Other adverbial participles are formed from the various verbal nouns by adding postpositions; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-m\bar{a}$, saying in, while saying; $p\bar{a}ng-min$, while saying; bi-se, by saying, if you say.

Forms such as si- $b\bar{a}ng$, dead; $m\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}ng$, lost, probably contain the suffix $b\bar{a}$ mentioned in the preceding. Compare also $t\bar{a}$ -si chi- $b\bar{a}$, having-become sitting, being; rop-si chi- $b\bar{a}$, having-struck sitting, striking.

The usual conjunctive participle ends in si, se, or chhi; thus, $p\bar{a}ng$ -si. having said; $kw\bar{a}n$ -chhi, having put on. A particle $n\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}m$ is sometimes added; thus, rup-si- $n\bar{a}$, gathering; $kh\bar{a}$ -ji- $n\bar{a}m$, coming, in the Darjeeling specimens. The same sources also exhibit forms such as bi-sam and bi-sang, saying; ngyo-chhi-mam, calling, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. $Ng\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ rop-ji, I am struck, literally means 'me struck.' The ka in $ng\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ rop-ka- $l\bar{a}$, I shall be beaten, does not seem to add anything to the meaning. It is perhaps a verb substantive. Compare also ti-si-ka-na, living.

Causative.—There is only one certain instance of a causative in the specimens, viz., $chh\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, to graze. It is formed from $ch\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, to eat, by aspirating the initial consonant.

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Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} , and ni or na is usually added to the base; thus, \bar{a} -pin-ni, did not give; \bar{a} -yo-na, did not get. In chhyāng-do-lā, did not transgress, the negative particle must be contained in the o preceding the $l\bar{a}$, or else chhyāng-do-lā means 'obeyed.'

Note forms such as $kr\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -hin, crying was-not, I did not cry, where the negative has been prefixed to the auxiliary and not to the principal verb.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which has been kindly forwarded from the Nepal Darbar. The second is a version of a well-known popular tale which has been taken down in Darjeeling. A list of Standard Words and Phrases from the Nepal Darbar will be found on pp. 254 and ff.

[No. 18.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MURMI.

SPECIMEN I.

(FROM NEPAL DARBAR.)

ngi kolā mu-bā. Ngi-madhve chāng-bā-se āp-tā Yagar-gi mhi-kha-la sons were. Two-among younger-by father-to Some-one man-of twoansa-bhāg ngā-tā pingo.' Āp-se yāng-lā ansa pān-ji, 'ngāi share-portion me-to give.' Father-by said, me-bygetting-of share Tire-nire lichchhā chāng-bā chhutyap-la-si pin-ji. jā-se kyangno dhan separated-making gave. Some-time after younger son-by allproperty rup-si-jin-ji thārĩ pardes ni-ji. The-ri moja-la-si ți-si-kana gathering foreign-country went. There merry-making far living rhāng-lā ansa-bhāg-lā sampati kyangno. udab-lā-si, sampati kharchaself-of share-portion-of property spent-making, property expendedlā-si-jin-ji the-klāā-ri nhāchyā anikāl tā-ji. The-tā khāsiman tā-ji. made-having that-place-in bigfamine fell. Him-to distress fell. The des-la gi yāmbunāg-ri-chi-bā glāgirin ni-si ţi-ji. The That country-of withcitizen goingone stayed. Thatyāmbunāgri-chi-bā-se the-tā rāng-lā bu-ri gundi chhā-bā gyāttī lhābāb-tā-ji. citizen-by himown field-in swine feeding work-in engaged. Kāl-chhe-nu ti-ki-no ā-pin-ni. The-se gundi-se chā-se pol-bā-se-no swine-by having-eaten Anyone-by anything not-gave. Him-by husks-with-even rhāng-lā mrin-ba-ri pho ā-yo-na. Chetap ta-si-jin-ji pāngī lā-ji, self-of belly to-fill not-got. Sense become-having to-say began, 'nga-lā āp-lā prasasta gheng chā ā-khām-na leng yāng-bā dher 'my father-of muchbreadto-eat not-ableto-spare getting many darmā-ri-ti-bā chākara-dugu mu-lā; $ng\bar{a}$ phāyen-ji si-la-ji. $Ng\bar{a}$ rĕ-chhi wages-in-living servants are; \boldsymbol{I} hungering die.Irising rhāng-lā ābā chhyām ni-si, "ābā, lā dě thā-ri ve nga**i** pãp fathertogoing, "father, God with thee me-by sinlā-ji. Ngā ye-lā kolā pāng-bā-ri sobhā $\bar{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \mathbf{t} \bar{\mathbf{a}} \cdot \mathbf{n} \mathbf{i}$. Ngā-tā rhāng-lā darmādid. thysonto-say worthy not-am. Meself-of wagesti-ba chākara rhāngbal lā-o," pāng-si pāng-lā,' bhi-si re-si rhāng-lā living servantlikemake," shall-say,' sayingsayingrising own āp-lā ni-ji. The kolā dherna tharing mu-bā the-lā āp-se mrāng-si father's went. That son far very washisfather-by seeing VOL. III, PART I. 2в2

davā lā-si vār-si ni-si the-la khāre-ri ankamāl mwāi thung-ji. lā-si pity doing running going hisneck-on embracedoingkissdrank. Kolā-se āp-tā pāng-ji, 'ye ābā. lā $d\tilde{e}$ ye-la mukhyã-ji pāp Son-by father-to said, · 0 father, God and your presence-in sinlā-ji. Ngā ye-lā kolā pāng-ba-ri sobhā ā-tā-ni.' Tara ābā-se rhāng-lā did. \boldsymbol{I} thysonto-say worthy not-am.' But father-by own **c**hākara-tā pāng-ji, 'asal kwān bā-si chu-tā kwān-chhi pino: hvā-ri servants-to said. 'good clothbringing this-to putting-on give; hand-on gode-ri lakam-nun kwān-chhi pino. Ngālje chā-si chyāp de thung-si majā ring and feet-on shoes-also putting give.Us-byeating drinking merry laī. Tik the ngā-lā kolā si-bāng mu-bā, bi-se, pheri so-ii: shall-make. Why saying, that mydeadson was, againrevived; mā-bāng mu-bā, pheri yāng-ji,' pang-ji. Then-jyāpā ānanda lā-ji. lostwas, againwas-found,' said. They joy made.

The-lā theb-jā kolā bu-ri mu-bā. Khā-ji, \dim -lā ngām-ri dho-khā-ji, Hiseldersonfield-in house-of was. Came, neararrived. bāja dě nāch-lā sora the-ji. Yāgār-ki chākara-tā nhvo-si, 'the dance-of music and soundheard. Some servant-to asking. 'that ki-ni?' pāng-si, 've-lā ālā khā-ji; ti-ki ā-tā-nā khā-bā-se, brother came; anything not-befalling coming-because, what-is?' saying, 'thy yennä āp-se bhoj bhi lā-ji,' chākara-se pāng-bā. The bhomo-ā-si your father-by feast alsomade,' servant-by said. He anger-coming dim-āng-ri ā-ni-ni. The-lā ābā pheriāb ā-si the-ta bol lā-ji. house-into not-went. Hisfather outside coming him-to entreaty made. The-se āp-tā jwāb pin-ji, 'pāng-go, chodeyelā barkha yenji ye-lā Him-by father-to answergave, 'look, 80-many years sinceyour khāimāye-no lā-se tahal ye-lā bhajan chhyangdo-lā. Te-pa-ni yen-chhe doing ever-even service your word not-transgressed. Still you-by khāi-mā-ye-no ngā-tā rhāng-là rho din-chhyam \mathbf{maja} lā-ba-ri pāthā ever-even me-to own companions withmerry to-make kid Besyā-kidi gi ā-pin-ni. den tisi yennā sampati chā-si pin-nā chu not-gavest. **Harlots** with living onepropertyyour eating giving this khā-bā-chhyām kolā yennā ye-se the-la nimdi-ri bhoj lā-ji. Taba coming-on son your you-by hissake-for feastgave.' Then'ye pāng-ji, kolā, ābā-se ye satana ngā de-chhyam mu-lā. Ngā-lā said, · 0 son, father-by you always me with are. Mine khālāng mu-lā kyong-no ye-lā-ke. Ngān-chhe majā-harkha lā-si manāsib allwhatisthine-is. U_{s-by} feast-merry making proper tita bi-se, chu ye-lā ta-si; ālā si-bang mu-la, pheri so-ji; why saying, thisyour is; brother deadwas, again revived: mu-la, pheri yāng-ji.' mā-b**ā**ng ayain was-found.' was. lost

[No. 19.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MURMI.

SPECIMEN II.

A POPULAR TALE.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

rup-si-na molbi Hochchhe adhan $_{
m mi}$ mu-bā. Kōī muluk-ri gik gathering Maulwi Him-by always men Some country-in one **w**a8. ngyām-bā lām-bā. mi-ri Hoju sabhā-ri tire kathā kathā the-nā lived.Thatassembly-in oncetalehearing men-in lecture delivering pāng-mā krābai wāng-ji. Ochhem molbi-se hot∙tā molbi-se gik-ri tām crying entered. Then Maulwi-by him-to Maulwi-by talesaying one-in ngyo-chhi-mam ngyok-chhim, ʻ ai tik-tā krā-bā?' Hoju mi-se pāng-jim, • you wherefore cry? That said, asked, man-by calling mlangai $r\bar{a}$ nā-bā mu-bā. Hojo si-ba dher-nu tā-ji. 'ngāi jik 'me-by black goat keeping *wα8*. That diedmany days became. Hot-la rheng-bā dārī mu-bā. Chāro chā-mā yong-ji-m. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{i}$ tām Itslongbeardwas. Grass eating moved. Thee-by lecture ai-lā dārī dānbā krā-bā. Ai-lā pāng-min yong-mā khā-ji-nām saying-in thybeardmoving-in recollectionThycoming cried. tām-se krā-bā ā-hin,' bi-si uttar pin-jim. Ochhem hojo molbi-dā lecture-from crying not, saying answer gave. Then thatMaulwi-to khā-jim, sāran petpā tik-tā bi-sam, molbi-lā ās mu-bā jo hochchhe muchshame came, wherefore saying, Maulwi-of hope thathim-by was jyābā kathā ngyang-nu la-ji bi-sem. nichchhe Hojā molbi-se do-si goodlecture hearing didsaying. That from Maulwi-by arriving sabhā-jammā do-si lā-nu ā-tā-ni. arriving gathering to-make not-fell.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In a certain country there once lived a Maulwi who was always gathering people and preaching. Some day one of his hearers went on crying during his lecture. The Maulwi then called him and asked him why he cried. Said the man, 'I once had a black goat. It is a long time since it died. It had a long beard, which used to wag up and down when it went about eating grass. Seeing your beard wag up and down during the lecture I was reminded of the goat. That was the reason why I cried. It was not on account of your lecture.' The Maulwi was much ashamed because he had attributed the crying to his good lecture. From that time he ceased to lecture.

SUNWĀR OR SUNUWĀR.

The Sunwars are a cultivating tribe of Nepal. Like the Magars, Gurungs, and Khas, they are considered as belonging to the class called *Mukhya*, or chief. They say that they came originally from Simungarh near Bara Chhatri in Western Nepal. On their wandering east they came to Chuplu on the Likhukhola river and took possession of it. Makwani Raja was then ruler of Eastern Nepal. Likhukhola and Khuntikhola are now the main settlements of the tribe.

Sir Herbert Risley, from whose *Tribes and Castes of Bengal* these notes have been taken, further remarks that the Sunwārs intermarry with Mãgars and Gurungs, though they theoretically form one endogamous group.

Sunwars are also found outside Nepal in Sikkim and Darjeeling, and at the last Census some speakers were also returned from Assam.

No information is available regarding the number of Sunwars in Nepal. According to local information collected for the purposes of this Survey

the figures for the other districts were as follows:—

Darjeeling Sikkim									
					,	То	TAL	•	5,356

The Darjeeling figures also include the speakers of Thami.

The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Assam		•				•		•				259
Jalpaiguri		•	•	•	•							36
Darjeeling	•	•	•	•			•					4,425
Sikkim	•	•	•	•		•			•			545
											-	
									Тота	L	•	5,265

The Assam figures have been returned under the head of 'Sunwar or Thami,' and it is not certain that they should all be shown under Sunwar. They are relatively most numerous in Lakhimpur (52) and the Lushai Hills (43). In other districts their number is quite unimportant.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Sunwar dialect has been received from the Nepal Darbar. It makes the impression of a word for word translation of the English text. A list of Standard Words and Phrases has been forwarded from Darjeeling. It shows that the version of the Parable cannot represent the dialect with fidelity. Above all, the order of words, which in the Parable is almost the same as in English, in the list agrees with that prevailing in other Tibeto-Burman languages. Our materials for describing the Sunwar dialect are, accordingly, rather unsatisfactory. They can, however, to a certain extent be supplemented from the list of words published by Hodgson.

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages. Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains the numerals in Sunwar, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and Migh Asia. London, 1868.

Our materials are not sufficient for a full description of the Sunwār dialect. It will not be possible to give more than a rapid sketch of some of the most salient characteristics of Sunwār grammar. Hodgson described Sunwār as a dialect of the pronominalized type. This statement does not appear to be borne out by the specimens prepared for the purposes of this Survey.

Pronunciation.—Short final vowels are apparently often dropped. Thus, popo, father; $pop-k\bar{a}$, of the father; $b\bar{a}$ -t and $b\bar{a}$ -ta, was, and so on.

There are not many instances of compound consonants. Compare $khru\bar{\imath}$, tooth; bloinsā, alive. A short vowel is sometimes inserted in order to make the enunciation easier; thus, $sunw\bar{a}r$ and $sunuw\bar{a}r$; kuchmi and kuchumi, a bitch. In most cases, old compounds have apparently been simplified; thus, sat, Tibetan gsod, kill; $b\bar{a}$, Tibetan bya, bird. It is, however, difficult to compare Sunwār and Tibetan with regard to the phonetical system of the two forms of speech, because the vocabulary differs to a considerable extent. In this respect Sunwār often agrees with Himalayan dialects such as Kanāwarī, Kanāshī, Manchātī, and so on. Compare $p\bar{\imath}t$, Kanāwarī $ph\bar{\imath}$, bring; $j\bar{a}$, Kanāwarī $j\bar{a}$, arrive; gi, Kanāwarī $k\bar{e}$, give; la, Manchat il, go; gui, Kanāwarī gud, hand; $p\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, Chaudāngsī $pisy\bar{a}$, head; $shar\bar{a}$, Bunān shrangs, horse, and so on. This state of affairs points to the conclusion that Sunwār has once been a dialect of the same complex type as Kanāwarī.

There are some instances of interchange between different consonants; thus, tup-u, beat; tum-na-tum, beating. It is not, however, possible to lay down fixed rules regulating such changes.

Nouns.—A prefix \bar{a} is common in nouns denoting relationship; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, sister. This \bar{a} is probably originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is often used as a kind of possessive pronoun. Thus, \bar{a} -lo-mishya nu, his sister with; \bar{a} -tau-ka-le, his-son-to; me \bar{a} -nu, he his-brother, his brother; bushye $shar\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -ngosh-tike, white horse its-saddle, the saddle of the white horse. \bar{A} is sometimes also used where we should expect to find a possessive pronoun of the first person; thus, \bar{a} -pop- $k\bar{a}uchh\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -tau, my-uncle's son; \bar{a} -maiti, before me. Compare the remarks under the head of pronouns below.

Article.—The numeral $k\bar{a}$, one, is used as an indefinite article. It sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the noun it qualifies; thus, $k\bar{a}$ popo, a father; tami $k\bar{a}$, a daughter. In the specimen the pronoun meko, that, is very commonly used as a definite article. Thus, meko $\bar{a}lane$ tau, the younger son; meko mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko $b\bar{a}$ -ri, that man sent him (into) the field, and so on. I do not think that this frequent use of the pronoun meko is in accordance with the actual character of the dialect.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or else by adding qualifying words. Thus, popo, father; \bar{a} -m \bar{a} , mother: mur, man; $mishi\ mur$, woman: $shar\bar{a}$, horse; $shar\bar{a}\ \tilde{a}mo$, mare: kish-she \bar{a} -po, a male deer; kish-she \bar{a} -mo, a female deer, and so on.

Number.—The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The common plural suffix occurs in several different forms such as po-kī, pu-kī, potchi, putchi, patchi, and pati. Thus, wāilī-po-kī, servants; tami-potchi, daughters; mur-patchi, men; mur-pati, they, lit. men.

Case.—To judge from the specimen the base alone, without any suffix or post-position, is freely used to denote the various cases. Thus, nelle ansa sampati \tilde{a} -ke, whatever share (of the) property (is) mine; meko lata-hai mere-ke poph, he went (to) his father; meko des, in that country. Commonly, however, postpositions are added.

The subject and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The suffix of the dative is *kale*, and it is sometimes also added to the object of transitive verbs; thus, *go-mi ā-tau-kale karrā-mi dherai tup-tā*, me-by his-son-to stripes-with much struck, I have beaten his son with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is, to judge from the specimen, put in the nominative, i.e., no suffix is added. Thus, mere-ke poph āsā-gepto mere-mi, his father divided to him. According to the list of words published by Hodgson, however, there is a suffix mi or me which denotes the agent. Compare go-mi, by me, in the last example but one. The specimen in one place uses ke instead; thus, meko mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko bārī, that man sent him to the field. The suffix mi, me also denotes the instrument, and it is, besides, used in order to form a locative or terminative. Thus, ghele-me, with ropes; khī-mi, in the house, into the house.

The suffix of the ablative is $ng\tilde{a}$; thus, $pokhri-ng\tilde{a}$, from the well. Forms such as pop-ke, from a father, in the list of words, are perhaps genitives.

The suffix of the genitive is ke or $k\bar{a}$; thus, $poph-k\bar{a}$ $w\bar{a}il\bar{\imath}-po-k\bar{\imath}$, the father's servants; $k\bar{a}$ mur rimsho-ke, of a good man.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are nu, with; $ma-b\bar{a}thu$ and $mo-b\bar{a}$, without; nole, behind; $t\bar{a}$, against; maiti, before; $dat\bar{e}$, between, and so on. In the specimen the postpositions are commonly used as prepositions. I do not think that this use really represents the actual state of affairs.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede, but occasionally also follow the noun they qualify; thus, $\bar{a}lane\ tau$, the younger son; $bushye\ shar\bar{a}$, the white horse; $mur\ k\bar{a}$ $r\bar{\imath}msho$, a good man. The termination so or sho in adjectives such as $r\bar{\imath}m$ -sho, good; $ch\bar{\imath}$ -so, cold; ho-so, hot; $m\bar{\imath}$ -so, ripe; $d\bar{u}$ -so, sour; ka-so, bitter, and so on, is the suffix of a past participle. Compare the remarks under the head of verbs below.

The particle of comparison seems to be $l\bar{a}$ -bhandā; thus, me \bar{a} -nu me loba misha $l\bar{a}$ -bhandā $l\bar{a}$ -shyo chha, his brother is taller than his sister. Bhandā is the Khas bhandā.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The forms printed within parentheses have been taken from Hodgson's list. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, khāk nishi sasi-kā, twenty two ten-one, fifty. Aryan forms are, however, now commonly used instead.

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Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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go, I.
                             ge, ga, thou.
                                                          hare, mare, me, he.
\tilde{a}, \tilde{a}-ke, my.
                             i, \hat{i}-ke, ge-ke, thy.
                                                          hare-ke, mere-ke, merī-ke, his.
go-pati, go-patchi, go- ge-patchi, you.
                                                          hari-patchi, mere-puki, they.
  pu-k\bar{\iota}, we.
go-pati \(\hat{a}\)-ke, gowā-ke,
                                                          mur pati-ke, their.
  our.
```

The suffix lā in go-lā nang, I am; ge-lā bā-ngi-de, thou art, is probably an intensifying particle. Mur pati-ke, their, literally means of the men.

Other forms are \tilde{a} -kale, me; go-mi, by me; meko-le and meko-kale, him, and so on. The forms \tilde{a} , my; i and \tilde{i} , thy, are used as prefixes. Instead of \tilde{a} we sometimes find \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} -pop- $k\bar{a}uchh\bar{a}$, my uncle; \bar{a} -mai-ti, before me. A, however, usually refers to the third person; thus, ā-chi-me, on his back. Compare the remarks under the head of nouns above.

Demonstrative pronouns are i-ko, e-ko, this; me-ko, that. Compare also α -ke-ngā, from here; wa-tha, here; yērē, there.

Interrogative pronouns are su-me, who? mar-me, what? The final me is probably an interrogative particle. Compare su- $k\bar{a}$, whose. An interrogative base ge occurs in forms such as $g\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, when? $g\bar{e}$ -tha, where? and so forth.

Indefinite pronouns are $su-k\bar{a}$, anybody; $m\bar{a}r-k\bar{a}$, anything; $ge-n\bar{a}-i$, ever.

Verbs.—The Sunwar verb is still in all essential points a noun. The person of the subject is not distinguished in the verb, and verbal tenses are freely used as nouns.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used as verbs substantive. $B\bar{a}$ seems to be identical with the base $b\bar{a}k$, to sit. It occurs in forms such as $b\bar{a}$ -me, is; $b\bar{a}$ -ngi-di, art; $b\bar{a}$ -t and $b\bar{a}$ -ta, art, is, and so on. Another base in dum, dung or thung. It seems to mean 'to become.' Thus, kā theb anīkāl dum-tā, a heavy famine arose; dum-nang, I may be; thung-so-ngā, being-from, having been.

Nang in dum-nang, I may be, only occurs in the first person; thus, go-lā nang, I am, go-patchi nang, we are. It is perhaps connected with na in nawe, to be; go-patchi basho na-ki, we were, and so forth.

A base ni occurs in forms such as tau dish bā-ni-mi, sons how-many are? ge-patchi $b\bar{a}$ -ni, you were. It is probably a form of the copula. It should perhaps be compared with ngi in ge-lā bā-ngi-de, thou art.

There is further a base chha, is. It is apparently identical with tcha in hare bā-shotcha, he is. The form chhuu in ge bā-sho chhuu, you are, is not certain, the original manuscript being very indistinct. It must, however, be connected with chha, is.

A base me, mi, or mā occurs in forms such as tau dish bā-ni-mi, how many sons are there? iko sharā dushya barshā bā-me, this horse (-of) how-many years are? mere-pu-kī rīm-so pām-tī-me, they made merry; meko-putchi tā-le-mā, they are, and so on. It is possible that we have here to do with more than one base. There is an interrogative particle me, and it is also possible that me is the pronoun of the third person. Forms of this kind are not, in the materials available, used in the first two persons, and they are perhaps remnants of the pronominalized stage of development. It is, however, possible

that the various bases beginning with m in reality belong to a copula. The final we in $ga\ lai-na-we$, thou goest; na-we, be, to be, is perhaps connected.

Other verbs substantive are ho, is; hai, is; thi and thiyo, was, and so on.

The list of words gives the impression of a regular conjugation with different forms for the different persons in the verb substantive. The details will be found in the list itself. I do not think that the dialect really distinguishes the various persons. Forms such as $b\bar{a}$ -t or $b\bar{a}$ -ta, was, are used in the specimen for the second as well as the third person. I do not therefore think it necessary to reproduce all the various forms in this place. I shall only mention that $k\bar{\imath}$ in go-patchi $b\bar{a}$ -sho-na- $k\bar{\imath}$, we were, seems to be connected with $k\bar{\imath}$ in forms such as mere-pu- $k\bar{\imath}$, they.

Finite verb.—Many of the bases of the verb substantive are also used in the conjugation of finite verbs. Our materials are, however, too scanty to give anything like a complete sketch of the state of affairs.

Present.—The most common form of the present tense seems to contain a suffix beginning with n. Thus, go tup-nu, I strike; ge tup-ne, thou strikest; go lai-na, I go; ge lai-na-we, thou goest. This form is also used as a future. Thus, go lāyi-nang, I shall go; denang, I shall say.

Another suffix of the present tense is $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$. Thus, $dum-b\bar{a}$, I become; $b\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, lives; $m\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}r-p\bar{a}-me$, what do they do?

The suffix me is used alone in pi-me, comes. Compare also tup-ni-mi, they beat.

The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is sometimes also used with the meaning of a present; thus, go tum-natum $p\bar{a}h$ - $t\bar{a}$, I am beating; $ngoshy\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he is grazing; $b\bar{a}$ -shyo $b\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he is sitting.

Compound forms are tai-bā-hai, get, and so on.

Past time.—The suffix ta or $t\bar{a}$ is usually added in order to form a past tense; thus, $p\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, I did; $bloin-s\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}-t$, came alive; den-ta, he said.

Instead of ta we often find ti, te, or to; thus, $g\bar{a}p$ -ti, I have walked; la-te, wentest; ge-ti, gavest; gep-to, gavest, gave, and so forth.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is also used in the same way; thus, $l\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, he went.

In gyābi, boughtest, we apparently have a suffix i.

Compound forms are ho $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, is found; la-ta hai, went; be-so $b\bar{a}t$, had died; $p\bar{a}m$ -ti-me, they made.

It seems probable that none of these forms are peculiar to the past. The suffix so, shyo, $s\bar{a}$, $sh\bar{a}$, on the other hand, appears to be a real suffix of the past. Compare $b\bar{a}$ -shyo $b\bar{a}$ -t \bar{a} , having sat down is, he is sitting; go $b\bar{a}$ -sho nang, I was. It is possible that this, or a similar, suffix is contained in forms such as $r\bar{a}m$ -so- $p\bar{a}$ -s-to, pitied.

Future.—It has already been remarked that the present seems to be used as a future. Note also forms such as go tup-ngana, I may beat; go \tilde{a} -kale tup-cha-mār-bā, I should beat; go-pu-kī māl-bā rīm-so, we should make merry.

Imperative.—The usual suffix of the imperative is u or o. Thus, la-u, go; ja-u, eat; gi-o, give; pit-o, bring. Another imperative suffix seems to be i; thus, asa-gei, divide; ja-i, let us eat; rim-so pa-i, let us make merry. Other imperatives are toya, let us drink; lawa, go. Negative imperatives are formed by prefixing mo.

Verbal nouns.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $ch\bar{a}$ or $chh\bar{a}$; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, to eat; tup-cha, to beat. The various tenses are apparently used as verbal nouns as well. Thus, vo- $d\bar{i}$ -te, in order to tend; $s\bar{i}l$ - $p\bar{a}$ -to, dancing.

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Participles.—The bases of the various tenses are also used as participles; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -teh, arriving; dor-sā, running; $l\bar{a}$ -sā, returning; $j\bar{a}m$ -so, lost; $t\bar{a}$ -siā, getting; $r\bar{r}m$ -so pu-sā, well doing, safely; $t\bar{a}$ -tā, getting; la-tā, gone, and so forth. A past participle is also formed by adding se or she; thus, ma bā-se, not staying. Compare tup-seh-nīā-mi, having struck. Other participles are tum-na-tum, beating; $blet\bar{a}$ -wā, calling.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is ma or mu; thus, ma $b\bar{a}$ -se, not staying; ma-tang, not got; ma dum- $b\bar{a}$, I do not become, I am not worthy; $j\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$ mu- $b\bar{a}$, food not-being, without food. Note $kh\bar{\imath}go$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $w\bar{a}$, did not enter; $a\bar{\imath}so$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{\imath}s$, did not disobey.

Interrogative particle.—There seems to be an interrogative particle me; compare su-me, who? mār-me, what? and the verbal forms ending in me or mi.

Order of words.—The usual order of words in the list of words and phrases is subject, object, verb. In the specimen, on the other hand, we find quite a different arrangement, viz., subject, verb, object. Adjectives and numerals usually precede the qualified noun. The list of words uses postpositions, the specimen generally prepositions, and so forth. If the order of words in the specimen were correct, Sunwar would have to be considered as a form of speech between the Tibeto-Burman and Tai groups. It has, however, already been remarked that the state of affairs in the specimen is probably due to a too close adhesion to the English original.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of words. The materials are very unsatisfactory. They seem to show that Sunwār is now a dialect of the simple non-pronominalized type. It is, however, possible that better materials would show that it is still, as Hodgson described it, a complex, pronominalized, form of speech, and the remarks made above are given with great diffidence.

[No. 20.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

SUNWĀRĪ.

(NEPAL.)

den-ta mere-ke poph, $ar{\mathbf{A}}$ lane Kā mur-ke bāt nīsī tau. Younger toldOne man-of were twosons. hisfather, ã-ke.' Tab mere-ke poph āsā-gep-to 'āsā-geī nelle sampatī ansa 'divide-give whatever share property mine.' Then hisfather dividedNole āsā-geī mere-ke mere-mī. mere-ke poph bāt sampati, meko dividedhim-to. After his father(-by)washisproperty, thatālane tau mu bāse sus khi-mi lata-hai kā nguni des smalldayshouse-in notdwelling many went one far country meko mere-ke Meko des, pāp-to sampati. nole pāp-to mere-ke hewastedhisproperty. Thatcountry, after wastedhis theb anīkāl dum-tā meko sampati, kä des. Meko bāt jā-chhā occurredthatproperty, one greatfamine country. Hewasfoodmu-bā. Meko lata-hai kām-pu-chhā $k\bar{a}$ mur-ke meko des. Meko Hework-to-do without. went oneman-of thatcountry. That mur-ke sus-ta mer-mi meko bā-rī vodīte po. Meko po phāsī tā-tā senthimthat field-in to-feed pigs. man-of Hepigshusksgotjangwā tārī ekoi ma-tang. Meko nole pī-tā ā-chet, den-tā. 'ã-ke eating but (?) thisnot-got. Hewhen his-sense, camesaid. 'my poph-kā wāilī-pokī tāi-bā-hai sus ja-chhā-ge-chhā; go benang solu. Go father-of servantsgetto-eat-to-give; muchdiehunger. I layinang a-ke poph denang, "poph, go pā-tā pãp tā bhagwān-tā my father shall-say, "father, I didsinagainstGod-against gā-tā-rī; aur go \mathbf{ma} dum-bā ĩ-ke tau. Hã ã-kale wondīso kā I thee-against; notbecomeyour Make son. me asone Tab meko lata-hai mere-ke poph. Mere-ke tāsīā mere-mī pophservant." Then he wenthisfather. father Hisseeing him nguni; rīmso-pās-to mer-mī; dor-sā la-ta. atārdo-ta tārī mere-ke sur him; far; pitied running went, fellon hisneck puph-pās-to. Meko tau den-ta mere-ke poph, 'poph, pāp-tā bhagwān go That kissed. sonsaidhis 'father, father, Isinned Godma-dum-bā ~~ke tau. g_0 ī-tā. Tab mere-ke poph den tā mere-ke not-became your son. thee-to, and I Then his father 8 112 his

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rīmso-bāt pheto wāili-po-kī, 'pīt-o mekokhub WO aur tārī mere-mi. clothand servants, 'bring thatverygood-being putonhim, gio kā mundrā tārī mere-ke blepchho, aur lito punăi tārī mere-ke give one ring hisfinger, andputshoesonhis khoili; go Ā-ke toyā jāī aur rīmso-pāī. tau be-so bāt, aur mul feet; shall-eat drinkand merry-make. My80n deadwas, andbloinsā-jāt; ho meko jāmso ho tā-tā.' Tab thiyo, aur mere-pukī becamealive; helostwas, and isfound.' Then they rīmso pāmtīme. made.

well

Meko belā meko theba tau bāt meko bārī. Meko jāteh nēhtā That timethatbigsonwasthatfield. He· coming near neh-to kāmso-pāto aur meko khi-mi. Mekosīl-pāto. bletāwā $k\bar{a}$ wāilī, that house-to, heard musicanddancing. Hecalling one servant, hīlo-pāp-to mer-mi, 'mārā mār-pā-me ã-ke khī-mī?' Meko wāilī jawāb askedhim-to, 'what domyhouse-in?' That servant answer gep-to, ʻ ĩ-ke ālane loba lāsā jāta rīmso-pusā. Meko-lāgī ῗ-ke gave, 'your younger brother returning camewell-doing. That-for your poph ge-tī $k\bar{a}$ khāmakhāī.' mekoTab rīs-pāp-to khīgo-mā-wā meko father gavefeast.' \boldsymbol{a} Then heanger-made not-entered thatkhī-mī, Tab merī-ke poph jā-ta lungā aur samjhāi-pāp-to bletāwā meko house-in. Then hisfather cameoutand entreated calling thattau. Meko theba tau den-ta merī-ke poph, 'poph, sus barkhā dum-te Thateldersonsaidhis father, 'father, many years became go pā-tā \tilde{i} -ke kām; aur ge-nā-ì dīso-mā-bīs i-ke hukum. Aur gā I didyour work; andevernot-transgressed your order. And thou genā-ī gep-to ã-kale ${f k}ar{f a}$ chāse-pāthā pū-chhā rīmso-pām-tī-mī \tilde{a} -ke ever gavest(-not)me-to onegoat-young to-make merry-making my Ĩ-ke wārchā. ālane tau taipanī meko bā-ta pāp-to nelle meri-ke friends. Your younger sonalthoughhehas wastedallhis sampatī, mer-mī $g\bar{a}$ ge-ti ${
m k} {
m ar a}$ khāmākhāī.' Tab meko den-ta meri-ke property, . him-to thougavestafeast. Then he saidhis theba tau, 'tau, $g\bar{a}$ sadhai go-nu bā-ta; aur ã-ke \mathbf{nelle} sampati ho elderson, 'son, thoualways me-with art; and allmy property is ĩ-ke. Go-puki mālbā rīmso, mar-de ~~i-ke loba beso bā-ta. mul yours. W_e should-make merry, because your brother deadwas, now bloinsā jāt; meko jāmso thio, tā-tā.' alive came; he lostwas, was-found.

MÀGARĪ.

The Magars are one of the fighting tribes of Nepal. Like the Gurungs, Sunwars, and Khas, they belong to the group known as mukhya, i.e., chief.

The name of the tribe is sometimes spelt Magar, and sometimes Mangar. The latter form is apparently common in Darjeeling. The actual pronunciation is probably Magar, and I have written accordingly, though the true form of the word is not quite certain.

The old home of the Magars are the central and lower parts of the mountains between the Bheri and Marsyandi Rivers. According to Mr. Beames their most eastern village is Tannang, about forty miles west of Khatmandu, and their settlements stretch as far west as the town of Palpa. The most important are Rishing, Giring, Bhirkot, Dhor, and Lamzhang. They are now found over most parts of Nepal, and further in Darjeeling, Sikkim, and other districts of Bengal, and also in Assam, especially in the Naga Hills.

We have no information regarding the number of speakers in Nepal. Mr. Beames' informants estimated the number of the tribe at about 6,000 fighting men. We cannot, however, attach any importance to such estimates. The number of speakers in such districts as fall within the scope of this Survey has been estimated by the local authorities as follows:—

Darjeeling						•	•	•		•	•	•	15,979
Sikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		• ,	•	1,000
						٠				To	TAL		16,979

At the last Census of 1901 the dialect was returned from Assam and the Bengal Presidency. Most of the speakers in Assam were returned from the Naga Hills (659). The Mägars usually adhere to their mother tongue, and do not, like the Gurungs, abandon it in favour of Khas. Thus, of 2,440 Mägars enumerated in Sikkim 2,034 returned Mägar as their parent tongue. The 1901 Census figures for the dialect are as follows:—

Ass	am	•	•	•	•		•	•					•	•	1,815
Ben	ga]	<u> </u>													
	Ja	lpaigur	i .		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		3,2	214	
		arjeeling			•	•	•		•		•	•	11,1	74	
	C	hittagon	g Hil	l Tra	cts		•							25	
	\mathbf{C}	hampara	n.	•	•				•	•	•	•	2	214	
	Si	ikkim	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		2,0) 34	
															• • • • •
															16,661
												T	DTAL	•	18,476

The Magar dialect is relatively well known. A sketch of the grammatical system was published in 1869 by Mr. Beames, and a vocabulary had already been printed by Hodgson. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar, and they will be printed below. Another version of the Parable and another list were forwarded from Darjeeling. They represented the same form of speech as the Nepal specimens, and they have not, therefore, been reproduced.

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AUTHORITIES-

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Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals, and Appendix B personal pronouns in Magar.

HUNTER, W. W., -A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Beames, John,—On the Magar Language of Nepal. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. iv, 1869, pp. 178 and ff.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE, - Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874.

The remarks on Magari grammar which follow are based on the materials printed below and on Mr. Beames' sketch, which should be consulted for further details.

Magari has been much influenced by Aryan dialects, especially in vocabulary. Some of the most usual case-suffixes are likewise Aryan. On the whole, however, the general character of the dialect has remained unchanged.

Pronunciation.—Mägarī possesses the vowels a, e, i, o, and u. There is, moreover, an \ddot{o} and an \ddot{u} . These sounds are written in various ways in the specimens. \ddot{O} is described as lying between the \ddot{o} in German 'Höhe' and the eu in German 'feuer.' It occurs in forms such as $ng\ddot{o}$, written ngai, ngei, by me; $kan-k\ddot{o}$, written kan-koi, by us, and so forth. \ddot{U} is of much more frequent occurrence. It is written a, u, iu, io, eo, you, and so on. According to Mr. Beames it occurs in words' such as $jy\ddot{a}-ch\ddot{u}$, written $jy\ddot{a}-cha$, eating; $so-m\ddot{u}$, written so-mu, rising; $nung-n\ddot{u}$, written nung-nu and nung-nai, going; $ch\ddot{u}$, written chiu, dog; $hoch\ddot{u}$, written ho-chio, ho-cheo, ho-chyou, his.

I have not ventured to introduce the signs \ddot{o} and \ddot{u} in the specimens, because we must reckon with the possibility of a somewhat different pronunciation in the different districts.

The vowels are sometimes marked as long and sometimes as short. Really long vowels are, however, said to exist only in borrowed words.

The consonantal system is very fully developed. According to Mr. Beames, it comprises the following sounds:—

k, kh, g, gh, ng ch, chh, j, jh, ny $\underline{ts}, \underline{ts}h, \underline{dz}$ t, th, d, dh, n t, th, d, dh, n p, ph, b, bh, m y, r, l, w sh, s, z, h.

The sounds \underline{ts} , $\underline{ts}h$, and \underline{dz} are used in borrowed words; thus, $\underline{ts}\bar{a}kar$, a servant; $\underline{ts}h\bar{a}n$ -ke, to become; kam- $\underline{dz}aro$, ague. They have been written ch, chh, j, respectively, in the specimens. I have, however, followed Mr. Beames in distinguishing them from the palatals.

Instead of z the specimens write j. I have followed Mr. Beames.

M, n, r, and l are frequently aspirated, and the same is, according to Mr. Beames, the case with all consonants in excited talk; thus, $dh\bar{a}nghonhe$, I see, I see, instead of $d\bar{a}ngone$.

The cerebrals are mostly used in borrowed words. On the other hand, the dentals are said to have the same sound as the English dentals. They are accordingly constantly replaced by cerebrals.

Article.—There are no articles, but the numeral kat, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, $kat \ \underline{ts} \bar{a} kar$, a servant.

Nouns.—The prefix mi is common in words denoting parts of the body; thus, ngo mi-talu, my head. It also occurs in words such as mi- $z\bar{a}$, son; mi-ris, anger. It is probably a demonstrative pronoun. Another prefix ar occurs in forms such as ar-min, name.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes; thus, bhar-mi, man; māhazā, woman: thor, bull; nyet, cow: chü, dog; chü-mān, or, chü chhauri, bitch: len-zā mi-zā, son; māsto mi-zā, daughter: dārhyā mirga, a male deer; murli mirgā, a female deer.

Number.—The plural is not marked if it appears from the context. If it is necessary to mark it, words such as pattā, all; haru, all, are added. Thus, im pattā, houses; bai haru, fathers. Some lists also contain forms such as masto-ko, women; ghorā-ko, horses.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by any suffix. The dative suffix ke or $k\bar{\imath}$ is, however, often used to denote the object; thus, ho-chü $mi-z\bar{a}$ -ko $ng\ddot{o}$ $d\bar{a}thuk-\bar{a}$, his son-to me-by struck, I have beaten his son. The suffix ke, $k\bar{\imath}$, is probably Aryan.

The suffix of the case of the agent, which is used to denote the subject of transitive verbs, is e or i; thus, bhar-mi-y-e, by a man; mi-za-i, by the son. After vowels this suffix is occasionally dropped, or, rather, it is contracted into one sound with the preceding vowel; thus, bai, by the father.

The suffix of the dative is ki or ke, as has been already remarked. Na or nang is occasionally added, apparently without adding anything to the meaning; thus, kat bai-ki-nang, to a father.

The suffix of the genitive is o or u; thus, bay-o, of a father; $des-\tilde{u}$, of a country. A preceding vowel is sometimes contracted into one sound with this suffix. Thus, mi-za-u and mi-zo, of a child. Sometimes also a k is inserted; thus, $mi-z\bar{a}-ko$, of a child. In forms such as bhar-mi-kung, of a man, the final vowel has been accompanied by a nasaiization.

The suffix of the locative is ang; thus, im-ang, in the house.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are ing, from; $t\bar{a}ki$, $t\bar{a}king$, on; $l\bar{a}ki$, from; $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, with, near; $s\bar{a}thang$, with; $l\bar{a}i$, to; dekhi, from; nhung-lak, behind; $mh\bar{a}ke$ and $mh\bar{a}g-l\bar{a}g$, under, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. They very often end in the suffix chü, which is usually written cha or chha, in the specimens; thus, karang-chü, big.

The particle of comparison is denang; thus, hochü bhai hochü bahini denang ghyānchü le, his brother his sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. 'Six' and following are Aryan loan-words. Numerals precede the word they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

	I.	We.	Thou.	You.	He.	They.
Nom Agent . Genitive .	ngā ngö, ngei ngao, ngo	kān, kān-ko kān-e, kān-koi kān-ung	nāng nang-e, nö nang-o, nāwo	nāko nā-koi nākung	hosai. hos hosai hochü	hos-ko hosruk. hosruk-e. hos-kung, hosruk-ung.

Other forms are kān-kurik, we; nāng-kurik, you; nāko and nākun, you, honorific; nā-kruk, you (plural), and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are is and isai, this; $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{a}sai$, that. Hos, he, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? kos, which? hi, what? kurik, how many? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding the indefinite particle ra to interrogatives; thus, su-ye-ra, by any one; hi-ra, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. The Aryan je is sometimes used. It is, however, combined with the relative participle, and not with the finite tenses of the verb. Thus, ngou je le-cha, mine what being, all that is mine.

Note finally the reflexive pronoun laho, own.

Verbs.—The verb is still in all essential points a noun. There is no difference for person. A suffix s is, it is true, often added in the second person; thus, nang nung-le and nang nung-les, thou goest. The use of this s is not, however, regulated by any fixed rules, and it gives the impression of being an Aryan loan.

Verb substantive.—The usual verb substantive is le or le- $s\bar{a}$, past $ley\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{a}$. A compound form is \bar{a} -le, is, which is also used as a future. Other forms are supplied from the base $\underline{ts}h\bar{a}n$, to be, to become, which is borrowed from Naipālī chha; thus, $ng\bar{a}$ $\underline{ts}h\bar{a}n$ -ki hik-le, I can be, I may be.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive is extensively used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The usual form of the present tense is a compound, the verb substantive being added to the base; thus, \tilde{u} -le, he lives; $d\tilde{a}thuk$ -le, I strike. Instead of le we also find ne; thus, $\underline{ts}h\tilde{a}n$ -ne, he is. A compound present is formed by adding m-ne or mi-ne, i.e., the verb substantive and the suffix of the conjunctive participle. Thus, ra-m-ne, he comes; o-mi-ne, he is sitting. Mr. Beames gives mo-ne, or, after consonants, o-ne, instead, and calls this form an aorist because it is used with reference to past, present, or future occurrences. Thus, chi-ni hos-ehi-ra $m\bar{a}$ jai-mo-ne, to-day he has eaten nothing; $kul\bar{a}g$ ngu-mo-ne, where do you live? nung- $ch\ddot{u}$ dangone, I will go and see.

Mr. Beames also mentions a suffix lang or nang; thus, nang-ke sāt-nang, I will strike you; rākh-lang, I bring.

According to the same authority the base is sometimes also used alone as a present; thus, jaï ki ma jaï, will you eat or not?

Past time.—It has already been remarked that forms such as $n\bar{a}k$ -di-m-ne, transgressed; si-ma-ne, was dead, and so forth, are indefinite with regard to time. Forms such as $mh\bar{a}$ -le, was lost, are properly forms of the present. $S\tilde{i}$ -me, was dead, is perhaps derived from sim-ne. Nung-ne, went, and similar forms, probably also belong to the present time. The usual suffix of past time, on the other hand, is \bar{a} ; thus, $z\bar{a}t$ - \bar{a} , did; nung- \bar{a} , went; de-y- \bar{a} , said, and so forth.

Forms such as \tilde{u} -le-s \tilde{a} , lived; nung-le-s \tilde{a} , went, are apparently also only used with the meaning of a past.

Yā-nhi, gave, is probably another form of the present ya-ne, gives.

A real past is apparently the form tshān-sī, it became.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future; thus, $d\bar{a}thuk$ -le, I shall beat. There seems to be, besides a future suffix, ing; thus, $lou\ k\bar{a}n\ moja\ z\bar{a}t$ -ing, well we shall make merry. A future is also formed by prefixing \bar{a} and suffixing e; thus, \bar{a} -de-y-e, I shall say; \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}kh$ -e, shall bring.

Imperative.—The suffix of the imperative is o; thus, $r\tilde{a}kh$ -o, bring. Bases ending in \tilde{a} change this \tilde{a} to o or e and insert an h before o, or else a-o becomes o; thus, $y\tilde{a}$ -ke, to give; yo-h-o, ye-h-o, ye-h-o, and yo, give.

A more polite imperative is formed by adding the suffix ni; thus, $y\bar{a}$ -ni, give; kher-ni, run. Instead of ni we also find $n\bar{a}$; thus, $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, come.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix ki or ke; thus, $y\bar{a}$ -ke, to give; $z\bar{a}t$ -ki, to do. Forms such as $y\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{i}$, to give, show the common aspiration of the initial consonant. An infinitive of purpose is formed by adding lai to this form; thus, was- $k\bar{i}$ -lai, in order to tend.

Relative participles are formed by adding the suffix $ch\ddot{u}$, which is usually written cha in the specimens; thus, $y\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{i}$ $par\bar{i}$ -cha ansa, to-give proper-being share, the share which I shall get; hose dhut $\underline{ts}\bar{a}n$ - $ch\ddot{u}$ kurek din $\underline{ts}an$ - \bar{a} , that matter happening howmany days became? how long ago was it?

This form is sometimes also used as a verbal noun; thus, harkha zāt-cha, to make merry; ku-chi birin-chü āle, whom-by sending may be? who may have sent it? mā nung-a-s dereng nang-ke detachü le, not goest then thee-to beating is, if you do not go you will be punished.

The conjunctive participle is formed by adding $m\ddot{u}$, or, after consonants, $n\ddot{u}$; thus, $y\ddot{a}-m\ddot{u}$, having given; $r\ddot{a}kh-n\ddot{u}$, having brought. Instead of $m\ddot{u}$ we also find mo and mu, and instead of $n\ddot{u}$ the specimens write nu, nai, and so forth. Thus, so-mu, having arisen; $z\ddot{a}t-nu$, having done; $nung-nai\ le$, going is.

An adverbial participle, which also has the meaning of a conjunctive participle, is formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}ng$; thus, $de-n\bar{a}$, saying; $r\bar{a}-n\bar{a}ng$, on coming.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. $Ng\bar{a}$ -ki dung- \bar{a} , I am struck, literally means 'me-to struck.'

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Causative verb.—It is not possible to state the rules regulating the formation of causatives in Māgarī. Some causatives are apparently formed by adding k; thus, $r\tilde{a}$ -ke, to come; $r\tilde{a}k$ -ke, to bring; $bil\tilde{a}k$ -nu, causing to put on, from bilh-ke, to put on.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ le, I am not; $m\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}$, thou didst not give.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to Mr. Beames' sketch and to the specimen which follows. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on p. 254 and ff.

[No. 21.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MÃGARĪ.

(FROM THE NEPAL DARBAR.)

Kat bhar-mi nis mi-zā le-ā. Nis madhyã kānchhā mi-za-i, One man(-of)twoTwosons were. amongyounger son-by, 'ngā-kī yā-khi parī-cha yā-khi-tshān-ni, de-nā, bai ansa ansa 'me-to to-give required sharegive-please, saying, father share chhutī-dī-mu yā-nhī. Hīra din nhuữg kānchhā mi-zai patta-na dividing gave. Some days after younger son-by allHo-lã batal-li-mu pardes nung-le-sā. moj-khātā los u-mu laho There far other-country went. staying luxury-with gathering own ansa-bhāga pattana sampati kharcha zāt-nu hek-lesā. Ho-lã krānchha allexpended making There share-portion property finished. bighos-ki-nã anikāl dukha tshān-nā hos pari-nām des-ũ bhar-mi him-to-also misery that arising becoming famine country-of man Ho-lã khāţā nung-nu ũ-le-sā. sahar-ũ bhar-mi-ye hos-kī hyāgar-ang withstayed.There town-of man-by himgoing fields-in di-le-sā. wak was-kī-lai Su-ve-ra hi-ra-na $m\bar{a}$ he-le-sā. Wak swine watching-for applied. Anyone-by anything-even not Swine gave. jyā-cha bhusi-ve da-na laho tuk rhās-kī mā-din-a. Chete $\operatorname{dis-n\widetilde{a}}$ husks-with even own bellyto-fill eating not-got. Sense getting sī-yā, bai tsākar-e de-kī-lai 'nga-u roti jyā-mu ubarī-seo-lā o-na began, 'my father-of servants-by bread to-say eating even to-spare-is bhusi-ye-o-na rhās-kī tuk mā-din-ā. rang-si-mu ngai Ngā sĩ-le. husks-with-even belly to-fill I me-by not-got. hungering die. khātā bai nung-nu, "ye Ngā laho bai, nāko-khātā ra " O withown fathergoing, father, thee-with I andparameśwar-khātā zāt-nāng, pāp ngā nākũ mizā de-ki läyekű mā-le. done-having, God-with sin \boldsymbol{I} thy son to-say worthy not-am. tshān-nī,", darmādār tārīncha zāt-kī de-mu Ngā-kī laho so-mu laho likeservant to-make please," Meown saying rising own los-na nung-ā. Dherai le-nāng ā-chyou bai-khātā bai dang-nã dayā Very far being went. hisfather father-to seeing pity nung-nu ā-chyou kher-nu gal-ang angkamāla tshan-nu zāt-ā, mwāi jyā. going his neck-on running embracebecoming did, kissate. deyā, ʻye bai, bai khātā Bhagwan nāko Mi·zai ra. khāţā pāp ' O said, father, Son-by father toGodand thee with sin

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de-kilāvekũ mā-le.' Tara bai laho Ngā nākũ mizā zāt-ā worthy not-am. Butfather-by to-say oron did. \boldsymbol{I} thy 80n 'sechha otin rāk-nu bilāk-nu yeho; hos-kī lāī deyā, tsākar clothbringing putting-on 'good give; to said. him-on servants pusāk-nu yeho, hil-ang juttā bilāk-nu veho. Lou kan aguthi hut-ang feet-on putting give, shoes putting give. Wellhand-on ring we gā-mu moja zāt-ing. Hi-kī de-nāng, isai ngou mi-zā sī-me. je-mu drinkingWhysaying, merry shall-make. thismy80n eating died. dīn-ā,' hos-ruk-e ānanda tshān-ā. pheri iib-a; mhāt-ne, pheri de-mu againwas-found,' lived; was-lost, saying them-by again joy made.

mijhāra mi-zā garh-ang levā. Ho-chyou Lhes-nu rāh-nāng im field-in Hiselder80n was.Returning coming house kherep-tā-rā-nāng bājā nācha seyā. Kat <u>ts</u>ākar-lāī ārgā-mu gin-nang, near-coming musicdanceheard. One servant-to calling a**sk**ing, rāhā; ānanda-khāţā 'nākũ bhāī kusala rāhā. Nākũ bai kat 'your brothercame; wellmerrily Your father-by came. one bhoi zāt-ā,' tsākar-e diyā. Hochyou mi-ris-e bhitri mā-paichhīyā. made, servant-by said. Hisfeastanger-by insidenot-entered. Hochyou bai bāhira kheh-mu hochyou bai bolabintī zāt-ā. A-chyou outHisfathercoming hisfather entreaty made. Hisbai-khāţā jubāba zāt-ā, 'wos-nī, yiriko barkha samma nākũ tahala father-to answer'look, gave, so-many years up-to your service zăt-nu sendana nākũ dhut mã nāk-dīm-ne. Nakoi sendana ngā-kī ever-even doing your wordnottransgressed. You-by ever-even me-to lāphā khātā moja khāṭā kat pāthā una mā-yā. Besvā withcompanions merriment for kidoneeven not-gavest. **Harlots** khātā u-mu sampatī jyā-mu hosai nākũ mi-zā, nākoi hochyou lāgi withliving propertyeating thatthy 80n, thee-by hissake-for bhoja zāt-ā.' Tara hochyou bai 'ye diyā, mi-zā, nang sadhai Butfeast gavest.' hisfather-by said, $^{\circ}O$ son, thou always ngā-khātān le. Ngou je le-cha pattana nāgu-na āle. Kān-e me-with art.Mine whatbeing allthine-also is. Us-by moj zāt-kī harkha zāt-cha sechha tshānsī. Hi-kì de-nāng, nāngo merry to-make joy making goodWhy became. saying, thy bhai simane. pheri jīb-ā; mhā-le, pheri dinhā.' brotherdied, again lived; was-lost, again was-found.

NĒWĀRĪ.

The Newars were the ruling race in Nepal before the invasion of the Gorkhas, and they still constitute the largest section of the inhabitants of the valley. The inhabitants of Khatmandu are, to a great extent, Gorkhas. In Patan, Bhatgaon, and most of the smaller towns, on the other hand, the Newars form the bulk of the population.

The number of Newars outside the valley of Nepal is small. Most of them have been returned from Darjeeling and Sikkim. During the preliminary operations of this Survey the number of speakers in those districts was estimated by the local authorities as follows:—

Darjeeling .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,979
Sikkim State											
								T	OTAL	•	5,979

At the last Census of 1901, the figures returned under the head of Newari were as follows:—

Bengal Pro	esiden	сy		•	•		•		•	•		•		7,491
Jalpai	guri		•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		850	•
Darjee	eling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,	570	
Chitta	gong	Hill '	Fracts	•	•	•	•	•	•				15	
Singb	hum	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•		2	
Sikkir	n.	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	1,	054	
Assam	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	382
											To	TAL	•	7,873

No information is available about the number of speakers in Nepal.

According to Mr. Gait, Newar is a different form of the word Nepal, and Newari accordingly means 'the language of Nepal.' It was the State language of Nepal before the overthrow of the Newar dynasty in 1769.

Buddhism was introduced in Nepal at a very early date. The sacred books of the Nepalese Buddhists were written in Sanskrit, and that language became the principal vehicle of Nepalese literature. Newārī was, however, also used for literary purposes at a comparatively early period. Most Newārī books are, according to Hodgson, translations and comments from and upon the Sanskrit literature current in Nepal. We also find works on the history of the country, Sanskrit-Newārī dictionaries, and so forth, and in some Nepalese plays stage directions are written in Newārī. The oldest Newārī manuscript as yet known was written in the 14th century. It is a Vamśāvali, and chronicles the chief events in the history of Nepal from A.D. 1056 till 1388. We do not know how long before that time Newārī had been used as a literary language, and, on the whole, our knowledge about Newārī literature is very unsatisfactory.

The character used in writing Newari is an Indian one, and it has developed from the old Brahmi alphabet. The first specimen on pp. 221 and ff. will be printed in that character. Hodgson mentions two other alphabets, which he calls Bhanjin Mola and Ranja, respectively. He adds that they are only used in Buddhist books. The late Professor Bendall kindly identified them, the former with the so-called 'hooked-top'

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Nepalese writing of the 12th-16th centuries, and the latter with the straight-topped writing of the same period.

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A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Nepal Darbar. They are the principal foundation of the notes on Newārī grammar which follow.

Pronunciation.—The spelling of the specimens is not sufficiently consistent to enable us to decide all details of pronunciation. The vowels a, i, and u are both long and short in the specimens. It is impossible to tell if this state of affairs corresponds to the actual pronunciation. E and o are not marked as long or short. The final e in words such as $k\bar{a}e$ is very short, and sometimes almost inaudible.

In the Newari text ya or ye is often written instead of e; thus, $da-s\tilde{e}$, written da-sya, being; $ba-b\tilde{a}-mha-s\tilde{e}$, written $ba-b\tilde{a}-mha-sy\tilde{e}$, by the father. The transliterated text does not furnish any clue to the pronunciation of this e. Ya is probably written to show that the e is short.

Similarly o is often interchanged with wa; thus, o-na and wa-na, went. It is probable that wa simply denotes a short o.

Newari possesses hard and soft gutturals, palatals, dentals, and labials. Both the hard and the soft sounds may be either aspirated or unaspirated. Instead of the dentals

we sometimes find cerebrals; thus, jandhu and jandhu, back. It is probable that the use of cerebrals in such cases is merely a mistake.

I do not know how the sound which I have transliterated as an Anunasika is actually pronounced. It interchanges with a nasal; thus, ji and ji-na, by me.

We have no reliable information regarding the use of tones in Nēwārī. The dialect is said to possess the so-called abrupt tone. Hodgson writes chhi, one; ni, two, and so forth, in which words the sign' probably denotes the abrupt tone. It therefore seems necessary to assume that this tone results from the dropping of a final consonant. Compare Tibetan gchig, one; gnyis, two. The list of words gives nasi, two.

Article.—The numeral chhi, chha-mha, etc., one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, chha-mha manuksha, a man.

Nouns—Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes. Thus, doh, bull; $s\bar{a}$, cow: dugu, goat; chole, female goat: $b\bar{a}$ $chal\bar{a}$, male deer; $m\bar{a}$ $chal\bar{a}$, female deer: $k\bar{a}e$ $mach\bar{a}$, boy; $mh\bar{a}e$ $mach\bar{a}$, girl.

There are some traces of a distinction being made between animate beings and things. The suffix mha can be added to genitives and adjectives qualifying animate nouns, while gu can be added if the qualified noun denotes a thing. Thus, ji-mha $kak\bar{a}$, my uncle; ji-gu osata, my clothes. A similar principle prevails in the Muṇḍā languages.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. If it is necessary to distinguish the plural, suffixes such as $p\tilde{\imath}$, pini, pani, and ta, are added. Thus, bau- $p\tilde{\imath}$, fathers; $mhy\bar{a}$ -cha-pini $p\bar{a}ch\tilde{e}$, from daughters; seoka-pani-sena, by the servants; sala-ta, horses. In $bh\tilde{\imath}$ - $p\tilde{\imath}$ $mis\bar{a}$ -ta, good women, both the adjective and the noun have been put in the plural.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The object is, however, sometimes put in the dative; thus, $j\tilde{\imath}$ o- $y\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}e-y\bar{a}-ta$ tako-masi $d\bar{a}e-dhuna$, I have beaten his son (lit. to his son) with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. The suffix of that case is na or $n\tilde{a}$, often preceded by another suffix se or sa. Thus, $bab\bar{a}-mha-se-na$, by the father; $desa-b\bar{a}si-n\tilde{a}$, by the citizen. Instead of adding na, the final vowel is often nasalized; thus, $bab\bar{a}-mh\tilde{a}$, by the father; $bab\bar{a}-mha-s\tilde{e}$, by the father.

The same case is also used to denote the instrument, and, further, as an ablative; thus, $hima-n\tilde{a}$, by means of husks; $khipa-t\tilde{a}$ chiu, bind with ropes; chha-mha bub \tilde{a} , from a father; $y\bar{a}nana-s\tilde{e}$, from a distance. Other ablative suffixes are $p\bar{a}ch\tilde{e}$, li-se, and $si-s\tilde{a}$.

The suffix of the genitive is $y\bar{a}$; thus, $b\bar{a}u-y\bar{a}$, of a father. The suffixes mha for animate nouns and gu for things can be added to such forms; thus, $chh\tilde{e}-ya-mha$, the person, or animal, of the house; $chh\tilde{e}-ya-gu$, that which belongs to the house. Such forms can be used as adjectives, and the suffixes mha and gu can accordingly be described as genitive suffixes.

The suffix of the dative is ta, which is added to the base or to another suffix s, or else to the genitive; thus, $mhy\bar{a}cha-p\tilde{i}-ta$, to daughters; $bab\bar{a}-y\bar{a}-ta$, to the father; secka-pani-s-ta, to the servants.

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The suffix of the locative and terminative is sa or $s\tilde{a}$; thus, desa-sa, in a country; $bela-s\tilde{a}$, at the time; tuti-sa, upon his feet.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are ke and $y\bar{a}$ -ke, with; $(y\bar{a}$ -) $kos\tilde{a}$, under; li, on; lione, behind; (o-) $n\bar{a}p\tilde{a}$, together with; nheone, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—The adjectives are often used without any suffix; thus, $bh\tilde{\imath}$ manu- $p\tilde{\imath}$, good men. If they qualify a noun denoting an animate being the suffixes dhi and mha are often added. In the same way $dh\tilde{\alpha}$ and gu are added if the qualified noun denotes a thing; thus, tuyu-mha sala, the white horse; chiki- $dh\tilde{\alpha}$ -gu $chh\tilde{\epsilon}$, in the small house. The suffixes mha and gu can be added to almost any word in order to form possessive adjectives or nouns. Compare ji-mha, ji-gu, mine; sin-ya-gu, the wooden thing; thana-ya-mha, the animate being here; wo-mha, the coming one; $bh\tilde{\imath}$ -gu, the good thing. We even find forms such as $bab\bar{a}$ -mha, the father.

The particle of comparison is si- $s\tilde{a}$, from, added to the genitive of the compared noun; thus, o- $y\bar{a}$ $kij\bar{a}$ o- $y\bar{a}$ $keh\tilde{e}$ - $y\bar{a}$ -si- $s\tilde{a}$ ta-dhi-ka, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The usual form for 'two' seems to be ni and not nasi. Note also $s\tilde{a}$ -chhi, eleven; $s\tilde{a}$ -nhay, seventeen; ngi-chhi, twenty-one; ngi- $s\bar{a}nha$, thirty; swi-chhi, thirty-one; pi-chhi, forty-one, and so forth.

Generic particles are added to the numerals in order to indicate the nature of the qualified noun. Such particles are mha for human beings; gu for things; $m\bar{a}$ for trees and plants; $p\bar{u}$ for weapons and implements; $ph\bar{o}$ for flowers; $g\bar{o}$ for fruits; nhu for days, and so forth. Thus, $chha-m\bar{a}$ sima, a timber-tree; $chha-p\bar{u}$ $khw\bar{o}n$, a sword, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

```
ji, I.
                                  chha, chhi, thou.
                                                                    o, he.
ji-na, j\tilde{i}, by me.
                                  chha-n\tilde{a}, by thee.
                                                                    \tilde{o}, by him.
ji, ji-mha, ji-gu, my.
                                  chhã, chhã-gu, chhi-
                                                                    o-y\bar{a}, his.
                                     gu, chh\bar{a}-na, thy.
jhi-ji, jhi-p\tilde{\imath}, we.
                                  chhi-pĩ, you.
                                                                    a-p\hat{i}, they.
jhi-ji-sena, ji-mi-së,
                                  chhi-mi-sã, chhim-sẽ.
                                                                    a\text{-}mi\text{-}s\widetilde{a}, a\text{-}mi\text{-}s\widetilde{e}, by them.
   by us.
                                     by you.
jhi-gu, jhi-p\tilde{i}-gu, our.
                                chhi-pĩ-gu, your.
                                                                   a-mi-gu, their.
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Chhi is probably the respectful form. Compare Tibetan khyed. We do not know the difference between jhi-ji and $jhi-p\tilde{i}$, we. Jhi-ji is used as an inclusive plural in the specimen. Note also thao, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are tho, this; o, that.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? chhu, what? $chh\bar{a}e$, why? go-mha, which? how many? guli, how much? how many? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $n\tilde{a}$ or else by nasalizing the final vowel of the interrogatives; thus, $su\text{-}na\text{-}n\tilde{a}$, by anyone; $chh\tilde{u}$, anything; $go\text{-}bela\text{-}s\tilde{a}$, at any time.

Verbs.--The Newari verb is in all essential features a noun. The various tenses do not differ for person and number, and the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used to form a verb substantive. The most common ones are da or du, kha or khu, and ju. Thus, ji du, I am; o khu and o kha, he is. The form khe in chhu khe, what is the matter? contains a suffix e. See below.

Finite verb.—The Newari verb is not rich in tenses. Many forms can be used to denote both the present and the past. It will, however, be convenient to arrange the forms occurring in the specimens under the usual heads of present, past, and future.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present tense. Thus, $chh\tilde{a}$ $d\tilde{a}$, thou beatest; ji- $p\tilde{i}$ du, we are; $j\tilde{i}$ $d\tilde{a}e$ $m\tilde{a}$, by-me beating is-required, I should beat.

A common suffix of the present is e or $\tilde{\imath}$; thus, $j\tilde{\imath}$ $d\tilde{a}$ -e, I strike; ji jue pha-i, I can be. Compare future.

Another suffix, which is used to form present and past tenses, is la or na; thus, ju-la, is; cho-na, sits; $w\bar{a}$ -na, goes. It is possible that la and na are originally different suffixes. They are, however, apparently used promiscuously. It is also possible that l and n are originally the final consonants of the base, so that the real suffix is merely a. This a is often long; thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ cho- $n\bar{a}$, I am sitting. It is sometimes also replaced by the suffix e or i, and such forms are apparently never used in the past; thus, ji- $vo\bar{a}ne$, I go; ji- $p\tilde{i}$ o-ne, we go; a- $p\tilde{i}$ o-ni, they go.

The suffix na is sometimes also added to the suffix i; thus, ji siyi-na, I die, I am dying.

Compound present tenses are cho-nā-o cho-na, sitting sits, he is sitting; $d\bar{a}$ -yā cho-nā, beating sit, I am beating.

Past time.—The base alone is apparently also used to denote past time; thus, ji du, I was.

The suffixes la and na are common with the meaning of past time; thus, o-na and o-la, he went; $d\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, he struck; $ny\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, thou boughtest.

The suffix u in ma bi-u, didst not give, is also a general suffix, and it is probably identical with the final u in du, is, and so forth. Compare Tibetan o.

Forms such as $j\tilde{i}$ $d\tilde{a}$ - $y\tilde{a}$, I struck, are probably participles. At all events, a past meaning is not the only one that they have. Compare $j\tilde{i}$ $d\tilde{a}$ - $y\tilde{a}$ cho- $n\tilde{a}$, I am beating.

A real suffix of the past is apparently ta in forms such as $ph\bar{u}$ -ta, wasted; chho-ta, sent.

Compound past tenses are formed by adding auxiliaries to the conjunctive participles. Thus, $y\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ cho-na, having done sit, I have done; ju- $y\bar{a}$ cho-na, has become; ma o-se cho-na, not having-gone remained, had not gone.

The verb dhu, to finish, is sometimes added to the verbal noun ending in e in order to form a past tense; thus, $ji\ d\tilde{a}-e\ dhu-na$, I had beaten.

Future.—The suffix e or i is also used to denote the future; thus, $dh\bar{a}$ -e, I will say; $chh\hat{a}$ $d\bar{a}i$, thou wilt strike. The future sense can be strengthened by adding tini; thus, ji jue-tini, I shall be; $j\tilde{i}$ $d\bar{a}e$ -tini, I shall strike.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, na, eat; ti, put.

A suffix u is added in biu, give; chiu, bind.

Forms such as $p\tilde{u}$ -ki, put on; $nhy\bar{a}$ -ta-ki, put on, are perhaps causatives, and contain a suffix i added to the causal suffix ka.

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The suffix nu in nyā-si-nu, walk; yāe-nu, let us make, is probably also an imperative suffix. It is apparently formed by adding u to the suffix na.

A respectful imperative is biyā di-sã, give please.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing mate. Mr. Wright gives mate duhkha tāya (i.e. tāe), do not be cast down.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most usual verbal noun ends in e; thus, na-e, to eat; yā-e, to do; dhā-e-tunū, saying after, after he had said; yāe-ta, making-for, to make.

It will be seen that this is the form commonly used to denote present and future times.

It has already been mentioned that the Newari verb is a noun. The various tenses can accordingly be used as nouns. Compare dhā-la-sā, saying in, if you say; naī-gu hima, eating husks, the husks which were eaten; ji-ke du-gu, me-with being-thing, what is mine; thane, to fill; o-yā nimirtina, coming-reason, because he came, and so forth.

Various kinds of participles are formed by adding postpositions or qualifying suffixes to verbal nouns.

The suffixes mha and gu can be used in order to form relative participles and nouns of agency referring to animate beings and things respectively; thus, si ka-mha, the dead one; ji-ke du-gu, me-with being-thing, what is mine.

The suffix gu sometimes also forms a conjunctive participle; thus, $jue\ dh\tilde{u}-gu$, having been. I have not seen any examples of the use of this participle.

The most common conjunctive participle is formed by adding the postposition o to verbal nouns. Thus, o-nā-o, going; kha-nā-o, seeing. O seems to mean 'with' and its use corresponds to that of Tibetan dang. It also occurs in forms such as o-o bela-sa, coming-with time-at, when he came. Compare ji-o nāpā, me-with together, together with me.

A conjunctive participle is also formed by adding ka; thus, dha-ka, saying; bwā-ka, running. The suffix $y\bar{a}$ is apparently used in a similar way; thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$, having struck.

It has already been remarked that the various tenses are in reality verbal nouns. They can often also be translated as participles; thus, le-na du, leaving is, something is left; langhanā yā-nā ma du, transgressing doing not is, no transgressing has been done.

A past participle seems to be formed by adding se or se; thus, o-se cho-na, gone were, went; da-se cho-na, become were, became. Such forms are properly verbal nouns of the past. Compare kha-chhi-khā-chā da-sẽ-li, some-time becoming-on, after some time.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Ji-ta dā-yā cho-na, I am struck, literally means 'me-to striking is.'

Causative.—There is apparently a causative suffix ka. Thus, na, eat; bhoe na-ka-la, feast to-eat-cause dest, thou gavest a feast; $dh\bar{a}e-ke$, to cause to say, to be called. Si-ka-mha, he who was dead; phu-ku-mha, he who wasted, are apparently formed from such causative bases.

Some causatives are apparently formed by hardening the initial consonant. fessor Conrady gives da-e, to be; ta-e, to make: $b\bar{a}$, half; $p\bar{a}$, cut, etc. ProNegative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, jogya ma ju-la, worthy not am; ma biu, didst not give.

Order of words.—The regular order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows, to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 255 and ff., and to the works mentioned under the head of authorities. The specimen has been printed both in ordinary Nēwārī and in transliteration. In the former text ya is commonly written instead of e, and wa instead of e.

[No. 22.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

(NEPAL.)

कु समनुष्यया कायमचा ती सदस्य भारा चिक कि सकार्य थड भवताया क्ष निग् अम् लाग निग वियादिस्यक धाजाधायगुरी ववा इर्म स्म्राग विवासिक घाता दस्रि विधानम्दक्षं श्रेम् ता गता माना प्रमाद स् अभारा मार्गं सा मा थडभम् मिपिति दक्षे क्रा क्षावे तम् अ दम्म् सान-अतिकाल-त्र्याअपन्तयम् वनाउप करम्यायाङ्ग उपद्मया कुल द म्वांम् या धाम् आना इत हा म्वामित का जय कज की गास्ति व् ग्रिममें थडांग् प्राच थते मद्याडम कात अ्अर्ज अयात स्नान की भवियाङ थूजिश्य संवि संवध्य याङ्ग मनती राज पती जिन्वता या-धाम्-ग्राजिमीके मुझक पति र्निन-यक्षा-तयानी सम्बद्ध जिथालमा पिलातामा सिंद्ध नाजा अ मे बवाया-शम्म अताअ व्याप की में में हिन पाप याताड्य-भाड्य-द्वत-कार्यधायदः आय हि-सन् अर्रिशन कम

थं- जित-याय माल क्षाय धक् - शक्ष-बताया अम् क्षान व तम् व ना क्रम्प थडाकाय डमङाग् यात त्रम्यं खना डम-कन्ता चा या उप-वाक अना अ गल पगम् घम् प्रताअ नुपानन एभवे अम् ध अ ववायात धाल- थ्रा ववा ०० भ्यनवा र्भानं कत उपनम् जिन पाप-याताक्ष-आक्ष क्रतहरू कार्य-धायद आगय जि मञ्चल धक धा ला अभि थड्न काय या रवं न नाड्न ववा इत्सं धड्न म्पडनकपित मु धाल शित्र अमृत ह्या अ थायात पुँकि। ध्यया लाहाति स्त्रंग्र प्रितिमः लाकि ह्या मिकि। मिकि म्या-ग्रायं त्यायं का अप्रम्यंग व्यायं ना क्रायं धालमा जिकार्यं भिक्क म्वाना ५५ ५५ त ना ५५ चीन स ज्याङ्ग इभज धकः धयाङ्ग हाय त्यायंका इभनम्नगयान भवं जम् लि कन्न-कार्य थड्भग् ब्रॅम् चा मां चा नक्न थड्भक्रम् इभड्भ वंत्रम वाजन पारवनया म्लगायाधका सम्भक्ष यात स्निताड्य थनक्ष धकःतना एए अकने क्षाल क्रमके जा उप यु मुम्बालकी उपया निमितिन कृत वर्वी आर्थ सार्य क्रम धान सम्मवेल स्

नमचायाअ • क्रिम् दुर्ति मध्यम्प चानाववाकः पिहां अया ४१ हें येकजा ववायाग जिस्तं वियाअ गाका जी दत जिन कुनज् प्रक्रभ याना अभिना लम्ब जर्म-क्रक्त्र्वन तिष्ठा याना मङ्ग्र १५ वि पामा पिंडपतापनसरंग यायंत कुनदु यु वा चु इस तापील भन्न तम् व म्पाउप-नाप सा नाड्य-क्रन्नर् मीपिन क्रूक्क इस महिकाय उपन तिमिर्गिन कुं भाभ नकल धक धान् स्थावतमः ववाङ्गस्पति क्षाज्ञ-र पृता-क्तः स्यानि अत्रापि चानक्र शिक्ष उगू ह्य कंगू र मर्व्जा मित्नम्नग्याना भरविम् याय आयथ्रका का य धालमा किन किजा मिककामाता ५५ अल गना ५५ चानका <u> जयाभः उपतः॥</u>

[No. 22.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

NEWARI.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(NEPAL.)

Chha-mha manuksha-yā kāe ma-chā Chika-dhi-mha nī-mha da-sẽ cho-na. man-of \boldsymbol{A} boy children two Small being lived.kā̃e thao babā-yā-ke, ʻji-gu ansa-bhāga ji-ta bi-yā-di-sã,' dha-ka son-by father-to, 'my share-portion me-to give-please, saying dhā-la. Dhāe-tunữ babā-mhã ansa-bhāga bi-la. Kha-chhi-khā-chā said.Saying-soon-after father-by share-portion Some-time gave. dako da-sẽ-li thao-gu ansa-bhāga jo-não paradesa o-não becoming-after allshare-portion own taking other-country going mojã cho-não thao-gu sampati dako phū-ta. Tho bela-sã 0 living pleasure-with own property allsquandered. This time-at that ghora anikāla desa-sa ju-yāo \mathbf{n} ae kha-nāo ma kasta ju-yāo terriblefamine country-in arising to-eat not finding distressarising desa-bāsi-yā 0 desa-yā chha-mha thā-sa o-na. O-mha desa-bāsi-nã country-of \boldsymbol{a} citizen-of thatplace-in went. That citizen-by phā Phã ihae-ka-la chho-ta. nai-gu hima-nã thao-gu pwātha swine grazing-for sent.Swine-by eaten husks-with own belly thane da-vão cho-na. Atha-nã o-yā-ta su-nā-nã chhũ ma getting lived. to-fill Then-even him-to anyone-by anything not bi-yāo thu-li ju-se-li ju-yāo chetaye mana-nã bhā-la-pa-lã, ʻji this-much happening-on giving sensecoming mind-by thought, " my thā-sa guli-ma-chhi seoka-pani-sena babā-yā yeko na-yā-nã le-na du, place-at how-many father-of servants-by much eating-even left is, ji dhā-la-sā pityā-nāo sii-na. Āο ji babā-yā thā-sa o-não. saying-in hungering die.Now father-of place-to going, chhã-gu nheone ji-na pāpa yā-nāo, "Iśora-o chha-na kāe dhāe-ke " God-and thee-of before me-by sindoing, now your to-say jogya $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ ju-la. Seoka chha-mha-thë ji-ta yãe mā-la," I not became. Servant worthy one-like meto-make proper-became," dhāe, dha-ka thao babā-yā thā-sa o-na, bela-sa babā-mha-sẽ thao saying father-of will-say, ownplace-to went, time-at father-by own oo-gu vāna-na-sẽ kha-nāo karunā chā-yāo bwā-ka o-não gala-pota-sa coming far-from seeing pity feeling running going neck-on

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Tho bela-sa thao babā-yā-ta ghasa-pu-nāo chupā na-la. dhā-la, ' **vo** kiss ate. This time-at ownfather-to said, · O embracing chhana babā, Iśora-yā nheone upara-sa ji-na pāpa yā·nāo, āo father, God-of before you uponme-by sin doing, now chha-na-mha kāe dhāe-ke jogya ju-la,' dha-ka dhā-la. Tho-te ji ma your to-say worthy I notbecame,' saying said. Such kāe•yā khã ne-não babā-mha-sẽ thao seoka-panista thao dhā-la, 'bhĩ-gu son-of hearing ovonwordfather-by own servants-to said. 'good osata ha-yāo tho-yā-ta pũ-ki; tho-yā lāhā-ti-sa angū, tu-ti-sa lākã clothes bringing this-to put-on; this-of hand-on ring, feet-on shoes nhyā-ta-ki; jhi-ji sayā bhoye-nyāe-kāo rasa-ranga yāe-nu. Chhāye dhā-la-sā. put; feasting merriment shall-do. IVhysaid-on, ji kāe sī-ka-mha, mwā-nāo o-la; ta-não cho-na-nha, lu-yao myson the-dead-one, reviving came; being-lost the-being-one, found-again o-la,' dha-ka bhoe-nyāe-kāo rasa-rangga yā-ta. dha-yāo came, saying having-said feasting merriment made.

bela-sa ta-dhi-ka-mha Tho kāe thao-gu bū-sa cho-nā-cho-na-mha thao This time-atthe-elder .field-in sonown the-staying-one own chhe-sa 00 bela-sa bājana pyākhana-yā sala tā-yāo chha-mha house-to going time-at musicdancing-of sound hearing 'tha-na seoka-yā-ta sala-tāo, \mathbf{chhu} khe?' dha-ka ne-na. Seoka-nã dhā-la. calling, servant-to 'here whatis? saying asked.Servant-by said, 'chhana kijā o-yāo chhũ mu-mwā-la-kã o-yā ni nirtina chhana 'your brothercoming anythingnot-happening coming because your babã bhoe-nyae-ka-la,' dha-ka dhā-la. Tho bela-sa tamchā-yāo father-by feasted, saying said. Thistime-at anger-feeling chhe-sa-duhā $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ 0-se cho-na. Babā-mha pihã 0-510 hee-ka-la. house-into notgoing remained. Father outsidecoming entreuted. Babā-yāta lisala bi-yāo, 'tā-kālã da-ta, ji-na chha-na-gu sewā Father-to answer giving, 'long-time passed, me-by your service yā-nāo cho-nā; go-bela-sã chha-na-gu bachana langghanā vā-nā ma doingremained; any-time your word transgression donenotdu. Athe-nã ji pāsā-pĩ-o rasa-rangga nāpa yāe-ta chhana du-gu-chā is.Still I companions withmerriment to-doy m-hy goat-young chha-mha nāpã 90 bela-sã ma byū. Besyāo nāpa eh--não chha-na-gu oneeven any time-at notgave. Harlots with liring your sampati phu-ku-mha tho chhã kāe o-la-vā nimirtina chhã bhoe property waster this your sonrou-by coming-of on-account feast na-ka-la,' dha-ka dhā-la. Tho bela-sa babā-mha-se-nã dh: - a, 'he putā, gave, saying said. This time-at father-by said, · 0 son, VOL. III, PART J. 2 a

phūkã du-gu cho-na-mha, jı-ke jio nāpã chha \mathbf{sa} dā-nã all $me ext{-}with$ beingremaining, withyou alwaysme-of yāe yā-nāo khusi khu-lâ? Jhi-ji-sena rasa-rangga chhã-gu-he ma $to ext{-}make$ makingrejoicing is? Us-bymerrimentyours notmwā-nāo kijā sī-ka-mha, chha-na Chhāe dhā-la-sā, thūkā. jogya $the\mbox{-}dead\mbox{-}one,$ reviving yourbrotherWhysaying-on, proper consider. cho-na-mha, lu-yāo o-la. o-la; ta-não came. mas-who, recovered lostcame;

PAHRI DIALECT.

Pahrī is spoken in the hills of Central Nepal. The name of the dialect literally means 'hill language.' It is sometimes also written Pahī or also Paḍhī.

No information is available about the number of speakers in Nepal. At the last Census of 1901, 245 speakers of Paharī and 23 speakers of Pahī were returned from Assam.

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A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Nepal Darbar. They do not appear to be altogether trustworthy examples of the language, and the spelling is not sufficiently consistent or adequate for giving a precise idea of the phonetical system of the dialect. They are, however, the only foundation of the remarks on Pahri grammar which follow.

Pahrī is very closely related to Nēwārī, so closely that it can properly be described as a sub-dialect of that form of speech.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is inconsistent, and it is impossible to decide the various details regarding Pahrī pronunciation. O and wa are often interchanged; thus, o and wa, and. In mu- $n\bar{a}$ and $mw\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, having revived, u is interchanged with $w\bar{a}$. Similarly $y\bar{a}$ and e, i.e. probably \bar{e} , interchange in the suffix of the genitive.

Pahrī possesses a k, a kh, a g, and a gh, and corresponding sets of palatals, dentals, and labials. Cerebral letters are sometimes written. It is not certain whether their pronunciation differs from the corresponding dentals. Note the interchange between g and kh in naga, nakha, with; between n and ng in many suffixes, etc.

We have no information regarding tones and accents.

Article.—The numeral thi, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ thi- $s\bar{a}$, a father; kuju thi- $m\bar{a}$, a dog.

Nouns.—According to Hodgson there are two classes of nouns—namely, those that denote animate beings and those that denote inanimate objects, respectively. They are distinguished by adding the suffixes mha and gu, respectively, to qualifying adjectives, numerals, etc. The specimens do not quite bear out this statement, for the suffix gu is frequently used before all kinds of nouns; thus, chang-go manchhe, living man, a resident.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes. Thus, $m\bar{a}nchhe$, man; $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, woman: $doh-s\bar{a}$, bull; $m\bar{a}-s\bar{a}$, cow: $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}-cha$, boy; $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}-cha$, girl: kuju, dog; $m\bar{a}-kuju$, bitch: soro, horse; soro $m\bar{a}gu$, mare, and so on.

Number.—The usual plural suffixes are si, $k\bar{a}ri$, $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, $t\tilde{o}$, te. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -si, fathers; $m\tilde{a}s\tilde{a}$ $k\bar{a}ri$, cows; tho $p\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ -nuga, with my own friends; $chal\bar{a}$ - $t\tilde{o}$, goats; $besy\bar{a}$ -te-naga, with harlots.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding one of the suffixes na and $h\bar{a}ye$. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -na hio-ri, the-fatherby said, the father said; pro- $h\bar{a}ye$ nhe- $n\bar{a}$, the son-by saying-from, when the son had said. The suffix na also denotes the instrument; thus, $p\bar{a}khi$ -na chi, ropes-with bind.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{a}$; thus, u-th \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$, this-place-from, from here. In $s\bar{a}$ -tha- $l\bar{a}$, from whom? $l\bar{a}$ is apparently used in the same way. Hodgson gives ang, from; compare moj-ang, luxuriously.

The suffix of the genitive is $y\bar{a}$, for which we sometimes find e, i.e. probably \tilde{e} ; thus, nu $d\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ $ki\bar{a}$ -pro- $y\bar{a}$ $bih\bar{a}$, my uncle's son's marriage; $chh\tilde{i}$ $b\bar{a}$ -e chhe, in thy father's house. The suffixes gu and mha can be added; thus, soro- $y\bar{a}$ -gu kathi, the horse's saddle. The suffix gu was probably originally only used before nouns denoting inanimate objects. Mha and gu can also be added to the base; thus, $b\bar{a}$ thi- $s\bar{a}$ -gu, of a father; chha-mha $n\bar{a}$, thy brother.

The dative is formed by adding the suffix $t\bar{a}$ to the base or to the genitive; thus, $b\bar{a}$ thi- $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, to a father; $b\bar{a}$ si- $y\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, to fathers.

The most usual suffix of the terminative and locative is ga or ka; thus, bu-ga, in the field, to the field; $b\bar{a}$ -tha-ka, to his father. Instead of ga we also find go; thus, chhe-go, in the house; $l\bar{a}$ -go, on his hand.

The Newari suffix sa occurs in forms such as laka-sa, near.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as kana, after; lumane, behind; naga, nakha, and napa, with; nhorkhe, nhiorkhe, before; purko, under; sika, sike, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are formed as in Newari. The suffixes mha and gu are, according to Hodgson, used as in that form of speech. In the specimens gu is used before all classes of nouns; thus, bhingu $m\bar{a}nchhe$, a good man.

The postposition sika is used as a particle of comparison; thus, $h\tilde{o}$ - $y\tilde{a}$ manji- \tilde{a} sika $h\tilde{o}$ - $y\tilde{a}$ $bh\tilde{a}ju$ $t\tilde{a}j\tilde{a}$, his sister before his brother tall, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Generic particles are added in order to indicate the nature of the qualified noun. $S\bar{a}$ seems to be used in a more general way; thus, nhi- $s\bar{a}$ pro, two sons; thi- $s\bar{a}$ bhoye, a feast. $S\bar{a}$ is sometimes replaced by si; thus, ni-si, two. Other generic particles are mha, also written $m\bar{a}$, for animate beings, and gu or gi for things. Thus, thi-mha $chal\bar{a}$ -cha, a kid; thi-gi, one; ni-si-gi, two; khu-gu, six; che-gi, eight, and so on. Chhi in sa-chhi, hundred, is another form of thi, one.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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ji, I.
                                  chhi, chha, thou.
                                                                    hõ, chho, chha, he.
na, by me.
                                  chhã, chhao, by thee.
                                                                    ho-na, chho-na, by him.
nung, nu, na, nu-yā, nu-gu,
                                  chha, chhã, chhĩ, chha-mha,
                                                                    hwāngu, hõ-yā, chhayā, his.
   my.
                                     chhangu, chhu-mha, thy.
                                                                    h\tilde{o}-kari, h\tilde{o}-ri, they.
jā-ri, we.
                                  chā-ri, chhi-ri, you.
                                                                    ho-k\bar{a}-n\bar{a}, by them.
j\bar{a}-na, by us.
                                  chhā-na, by you.
                                                                    ho-kā-ra-gu, their.
jā·gu, jā-ri-sa-lā, our.
                                  chhā-gu, chhā-ri-sa-lā, your-
```

Note also tho and tha-gu, own.

The pronouns *chho*, *chha*, he, are also used as demonstrative pronouns. Other demonstratives are *tho*, this; *u*, this; *o* and *wo*, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $se-l\bar{a}$, who? $s\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, whose? gu-mha, gu-gu, which? $che-l\bar{a}$, $cha-l\bar{a}$, what? The final $l\bar{a}$ in most of these words is probably an interrogative particle.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding na to the interrogatives; thus, su- $n\tilde{a}$ - $n\tilde{a}$, by anyone; chhu-na, anything; gu-le-na, ever. Compare Nēwārī su, who? chhu, what?

Verbs.—The verb is of the same description as in Newari. It does not differ for person, and the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are the same as in Nēwārī, viz., khi, da, and ju. The usual forms are, present khi-u, past du. The final u of such forms is probably related to Tibetan o. Other forms are khe-da, it is; ji khi $m\bar{a}$, I be proper, I should be; asal ju-gu, good being.

Finite verbs.—The materials available are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of the conjugation of finite verbs, the more so because the difference between the various tenses is slight, and the same form can be used to denote present and past time.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, ho-na $d\bar{a}$, he strikes. A suffix u has apparently been added in yu, he comes; compare ya, come.

A suffix e or i is often added, e.g., in nearly all the forms of the two first persons which occur in the texts. Compare na $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ chongi, I beating sit, I am beating; chha $d\bar{a}$ -e, thou strikest. Chongi, I sit, perhaps contains a suffix ngi. In mi thi-ni, I am not (worthy), we apparently have the same suffix in the form ni, while si-gu, I die, is a participle.

I do not understand the forms $j\bar{a}$ -ri $leti\tilde{u}$, we go; $chh\bar{a}$ -ri $l\bar{a}$ -sõ, you go; ho-ka-ri le- $t\bar{a}$ -ri, they go. They are all compound forms.

Past time.—The base alone is also used as a past tense; thus, la, he is found; $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{\imath}$, he did not give. The suffix u or o can be added; thus, la-o, he was found; bi-u, he gave; $choy\bar{u}$, they remained.

The suffix na is used in forms such as o-na, he went; $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}$, didst not give.

Instead of na we find ni in forms such as $d\bar{a}$ -ni, I have beaten; yo-ni, I have done, etc., and $ng\bar{a}$ in $dhung\bar{a}$, I finished.

A common suffix of the past is re or ri, $r\tilde{i}$; thus, na $d\tilde{a}$ - $r\tilde{i}$, I struck; nhe-o-ri, he said; mu khā-re, he did not get. Nhe-o-ri, said, also contains the suffix o.

Forms such as $l\bar{a}i$ -gu, came; heo-gu, said, are apparently participles.

A compound past is na dā-e dhungā, me-by striking finished, I had struck.

Isolated forms are $j\bar{a}$ -ri $leti\tilde{u}$, we went; $chh\bar{a}$ -ri $l\bar{a}$ - $s\tilde{o}$, you went. Compare present.

Future.—The base alone is also used as a future; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -na da, we shall strike. A suffix tini or tingi, sometimes preceded by an e, can be added; thus, ji $d\bar{a}$ -ti-ni, me strike-will, I shall be struck; na $d\bar{a}$ -e-tingi, I shall strike; ji khi-tingi, I shall be. Ti-ni or ti-ngi probably contains an auxiliary ti and the suffix ni or ngi.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $y\bar{a}$, come; ne, eat; chi, bind.

A suffix u is added in khi-u, be,

Another suffix e or i is much more frequently used. Compare biye, give; soye, look; $k\bar{a}$ -e, take.

The suffix $g\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, put on; phi- $g\bar{a}$, put on; chai- $g\bar{a}$, let us remain; harkhi- $g\bar{a}$, let us make merry, is perhaps originally a future suffix.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone, or with one of the suffixes e or $\bar{\imath}$ and o, is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $hi\bar{a}$ -ta, making-for, to make; $da\bar{\imath}$ mu $kh\bar{a}$ -re, to-fill not got, he was not allowed to fill; he-wo mu-khi, to-say not-is, it cannot be said.

The suffix gu can be added; thus, $ph\bar{a}$ -ye jha-ye-gu, to feed pigs; mhe-gu mi-thi-ni, to-say not is.

In kharcha-nhe-thū lumane, spent-making after, after he had spent, there is apparently a suffix $th\bar{u}$. Nhe-thū, making, can, however, also be a compound verb, making-finishing. Compare the base dhu used to form a past tense.

The final ri in khi- $t\bar{a}$ -ri, to be, is probably only an indefinite particle.

Relative participles are formed by adding genitive suffixes to the base; thus, $darm\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}kara$, wages giving-of servant, a hired servant; asal ju-gu $k\bar{a}g\bar{u}$, good being clothes; yang- $g\bar{a}$ chang-go $m\bar{a}nchhe$, town-in living man, a man who lived in the town. It will be seen that the suffix gu, go, is also used when the qualified noun denotes an animate being.

The suffix gu is also employed to form verbal and conjunctive participles; thus, si-gu du, dead was, he had died; $maj\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}$ -gu, merry making; khi-dhongu, to-be-finishing, having been. It has been added to the verbal noun ending in o in kha-o-gu, having seen; ke-o-gu, running.

The suffix tini is used to form a kind of adverbial participles. Thus, khi-tini, being; wõ-tini, going; hioye-tini, doing.

The usual suffix of the conjunctive participle is $n\tilde{a}$; compare Tibetan nas. Thus, dai- $n\tilde{a}$, rising; wai- $n\tilde{a}$, going. Ra has been added in $kh\tilde{a}$ - $n\tilde{a}$ -ra, having seen. $Nh\tilde{a}$ has apparently been substituted for $n\tilde{a}$ in $nh\tilde{a}$ -ni- $nh\tilde{a}$, calling; $hi\tilde{a}$ -ni- $nh\tilde{a}$, asking.

Another suffix of the conjunctive participle is e or $\bar{\imath}$; thus, $w\tilde{o}$ -e and wa- $\bar{\imath}$, going; bu- $l\bar{a}$ - $\bar{\imath}$, bringing.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Ji dā-ri, I am struck, literally means 'me struck.'

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$, mu, or mi; thus, $m\bar{a}$ $b\bar{\imath}$, did not give; mu $l\bar{a}$, did not go; mhe-gu mi-thi-ni, to say is not. Note $ri\bar{a}$ mu-ra, did not transgress.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives, numerals, and pronouns usually precede the word they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows. I have corrected some obvious mistakes in the original. On the whole, however, I have been obliged to print the text as I have received it. Though it is far from being satisfactory, it is quite sufficient to show that Pahrī can safely be considered as a sub-dialect of Nēwārī.

[No. 23.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

NĒWĀRĪ.

PAHRĪ DIALECT.

(NEPAL DARBAR.)

Chha-gu madhe mānchhe nhi-sā du. kānchhā Thi-sā pro Onetwosons Them-of man-of were. among younger 'nun-dā ansa-bhāg biye, nhe-nā bā-ta-hāve pro-hāye, du-go nun-dā being share-portion father-by son-by, "me-to me-to give,saying Bhachā chha chhutiāyīna biu. dīna kana känchhä pro-hāye ansa share separating gave. Fewdaysafter that younger son-by dhana tāpā phuka batu-le-nā par-des wai-nā hutā moj-ang wealth far allgathering other-country going there feasting-with ansa-bhāga-yā-gu tha-gu sampati phuka ude-heo-re. chai-na Sampati own share-portion-of living property allsquandered. Property nhe-thū lumane hang-gu kharcha thavek dhāu ānekāl pareju. making afterthatexpense place-at greatfamine happened. dukha pareju. Chhāye-ta Hang-gu deka-go thi-sā chang-go manchhe Him-to distressfell.That place-of one residing man naga wai-nā chana. Hang-gu yang-gā chang-go-hāye chhāye-ta tha-gu with going lived. That city-in resident-bu him-to own phāye jhaye-gu jye-yo-ri. bu-ga Su-nā-nã chhu-na ${f m}{f ar a}$ bī. field-in swine feeding engaged. Anyone-by anything notgave. phā-na ni-gu munā-na-kha Chho-nā parī dai Chete mu khā-re. Him-bypigs-by eaten husks-with bellyto-fill Mind notgot.he-tā-re ki, ju-kha-nã 'nung bā-yā cha mathi ne-khā-tan getting to-say-began that, 'my father-of muchbreadeating le-gā ne-na-kā-dī-gā gwālāra chākara du; ji pare-he-na sĩ-gũ. Ji feeding how-many left servants are; hunger-from die.I dai-nā bā-yā thā "ye wai, bā, Īswara wa chha sike placerising father-of going, " O father, Godandyou onyo-ni. Ji-ma pāpa $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{a}$ chhã pro hewo mu-khi. Chhã darmā me-bysincommitted. Now your son saying not-is. Your wages bī-yā chākara-the he-nā-nāī." Dai-na bā-tha-ka Chhaü o-na. pro giving-of servant-like make-me."; **Ar**ising father-near went. That son chaha täpä bhagio, o-chha-yā bā-na kha-o-gu dayā, he-nā ke-o-gu muchfar being, his father-by seeing pity doingrunning

heā-gu dhusiu grāpu-ka chupā Pro-na bā-yā-ta nheo-ri heo-ri ne-ri. his neck-at embracedidkissSon-by father-to ate. said, 'ye bā, Iswara chhã nhiorkhe pāpa yo-ni. Ji chha-gu pro wa 0 father, did.Godyou-of *before* sin1 your and 80% mhe-gu (sic) mi-thi-ni.' Tara bā-nā tha-gu chākara-yā-ta hio-ri, 'asal not-am. saying But father-by own servant-to said, `goodo-vā-ta liga-na li-go ju-gu kāgū bu-lāī phigā. Lā-go aguchā, being clothes bringing him-to putting put.Hand-on feet-on ring, tai-nā liguna phigā. Κā ne-nā moja-na chai-gā. Cha-lā Why shoes put. Let-us eating drinking merriment-in let-us-remain. si-gu du, hanaka mu-nā; ho-nā, $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{a}$ pro ta-na-gu, hanaka u-gu revived; this80n deadwas, again lost-was-who, saying,my again ãnanda ju-yã chha-kā-na lao, he-nā choyū. was-found,' saying they happy being remained.

Chha-yā jeṭhā-gu bu-ga du. Lāi-nā che-yā-gu lakasa pro thai-nā elder field-in was. Coming house-of Hissonneararriving pekha-yā tā-nā thi-sā chākara-yā-ta nhā-ni-nhā. so bājā dancing-of sound heard-having one servant-to music and calling, nhā-he-nā hiā-ni-nhā, 'chha-mha 'chalo?' $extbf{n} ilde{ ext{a}}$ lāyo kuśala ju-vā younger-brother coming safe 'what?' saying asking, 'your thi-sā bhoye yo-ri,' lāi-gu khā-nā-ra chhã bā-na chākara-na chha-yā-ta father-by seeing your onefeast made, servant-by coming him-to ta-chā-nā dohā mu lā. chha Chha-yā he-nā piāhā angry-becoming inside not he came. Hissaying father outside chha-yā-ta bolabinti hio. Chha-yã bā-ta wo-nā jabāb biu, 'soye, him-to entreaty made. Hisfather-to going answergave, 'lo, nīsiāng chhã bikhā tahal hiove-ti-ni chha bajā kha gu-le-na-ni sinceyour serviceso-many years doing your wordever-even Herak riā-mu-ra. chha-o gu-le-na tho pāsā-kā-rā-nu-gu majā Stilltransgressed-not. you-by ever own companions-with merry Besiā-te-na-gā hiā-ta thi-mha chalā-chā $m\bar{a}$ bī-nā. chai-nă chha-gu onegoat-young notgavest. Harlots-with making-for living your ne-biu-gu 0 chha lāyo sampati prosuka bhoja heo-ri. to-eat-giving thatproperty your coming onfeast madest. Ānā-tu hio-gu, 'he du. Nohiā ma-da-sa-kho bā-na pro, chha ji-thā said, '0 father-by son, you me-with Then are. Mine being phuka chha-gu khe-da. Jā-na majā-yā-gu harkhi-ga munāsiba du: is. Us-by merry-making yours shall-be-happy allproper is; chhu-mha wo na sigu-du, mwā-na; chās-kī hanaka ta-gu-du, brother that your dead-was, because again revived; lost-was. la. hanaka was-found. again

LEPCHA OR RÓNG.

The Lepchas are considered as the oldest inhabitants of Sikkim. They are also found in Western Bhutan, Eastern Nepal, and in Darjeeling. They call themselves Rong and are known to the Tibetans as Rong-pa or Mün-pa. Lepcha is a nickname given to them by the Nepalese. According to the Sikkim Gazetteer the local pronunciation of the word is Lapcha or Lapche. Dr. Waddell thinks that it is composed of lap, speech, and cha, vile, and that it consequently means 'vile speakers.'

Róng has an indigenous literature, and the Sikkim Rājā Chakdor Namgye (born 1686) designed an alphabet for the use of his subjects. Róng literature comprises Buddhistic and other religious books, law books, etc. Very little has as yet been made known about it. Parts of the Scriptures have also been translated into the language.

According to information collected during the preparatory operations of this Survey the numbers of speakers of Róng in Sikkim and Darjeeling.

Number of speakers.

Sikkim
Darjeeling

were, roughly estimated, as follows:

25.000
9.894

Total . 34.894

At the last Census of 1901, the language entries under the head of Rong were as follows:—

AUTHORITIES-

Campbell, A.,—Note on the Lepchas of Sikkim, with a vocabulary of their language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. ix. Part i, 1840, pp. 379 and ff.

Hodgson, B. H..—On the Aborigines of the sub-Himalayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal, No. xxvii, Calcutta, 1857, pp. 126 and ff., and in Essays on the Languages. Literature, and Religion of Nepál and Tibet. London, 1874, II, pp. 29 and ff. The title of the reprint is On the Aborigines of the Himalaya.

Beames, B. J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a Map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Lepcha, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Lepcha vocabulary after Campbell and Hodgson.

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Lepcha Primer in Lepcha Characters. Darjeeling, 1874.

[CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE]—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 150 and ff.

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MAINWARING, COLONEL G. B.,—A Grammar of the Rong (Lepcha) Language, as it exists in the Darjeeling and Sikkim Hills. Calcutta, 1876.

Schott, W.,—Über die Sprache des Volkes Rong oder Lepcha in Sikkim. Abhandlungen der Königlichen Akademie der Wissenchaften in Berlin. 1881. Philosophisch Historische Klasse, No. V.

Waddell, L. A.,—Place and River-Names in the Darjeeling District of Sikkim. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. lx, Pt. i. 1892, pp. 53 and ff.

GRÜNWEDEL, ALBERT,—A Rong-English Glossary. T'oung Pao, Vol. iii, 1892, pp. 238 and ff.

Róng-sa vám. Lāpchā-gīta-samgraha. Darjeeling, 1893.

RISLEY, H. H., - Gazetteer of Sikkim. Calcutta, 1894.

Mainwaring, G. B.,—Dictionary of the Lepcha-Language. Revised and completed by Albert Grünwedel. Berlin, 1898.

FEER, L.,—Spécimen de la langue Lepcha (ou Rong). Journal Asiatique, ixe série, xii, 1898, pp. 177 and ff.

Written character.—It has already been remarked that a Lepcha alphabet was introduced by King Chakdor. Compare the remarks by Srī Kali Kumār Dās in the Journal of the Buddhist Text Society, iv, i, 1898, Appendix ii, p. 1. It is based on a certain form of the Tibetan U-met character, and consists of the following signs:—

£	U		W	7
ka	${ m kha}$		ga	nga
-◊	X		Œ	*
cha	chha		ja	nya
\$	ط		*	a
ta	tha		da	na
ス	Ø	5	0	7
pa	\mathbf{pha}	fa	ba	ma
U	Ge		H	٤
<u>ts</u> a	<u>ts</u> ha		za	ya
7	W		¥	ð
ra	la		ha	va
Cw	E		હિક	
sa	sha		wa	
5	₩		<u> </u>	(19
kla	gla		pla	fla
O	F		X	
bla	mla		lha	
8	2(E	12	SÃ
a	a	á	1	í
ZJ	ZZ3	Ŗ	æ	(2
u	ũ	e e	0	6
~~	44	·	U	U

The signs of the vowels given in the table are only used in the beginning of words and syllables. When preceded by a consonant the vowels are expressed as follows:—

The short a is inherent in all consonants and is not separately marked. The full signs of the other vowels contain the sign of the short a. This sign is dropped when they are preceded by a consonant. Thus:—

$$\xi$$
 ξ
 ξ

The consonants k, m, l, n, p, r, t, and ng are also used as finals without being followed by a vowel. They then assume a different shape. Compare the table which follows:—

$$\ddot{\mathcal{L}}$$
 $\ddot{\mathcal{L}}$ $\ddot{\mathcal{L}$ $\ddot{\mathcal{L}}$ $\ddot{\mathcal{L}$

These finals can, of course, be combined with all other vowels. Thus (kor; (kor, etc.

The semi-consonants y and r are often added to other consonants without any vowel intervening. In that case the signs y and y respectively are added to the preceding consonant. Thus:—

Ev kya	G khya	TV mya	ラレ klya	XV lhya
4	W	স	3	1
kra	gra	pra	mra	hra
EN	· WN		> >	ZN
krya	\mathbf{grya}		ngr y a	prya, etc.

The sign v is also added to z a, which is then transliterated 'a; thus, z 'aya.

Pronunciation.—The short a has the sound of u in 'rut.' In some words it has the sound of e in 'hen' and it is then often written e; thus, jan and jen, to be bad; fyan and fyen, a foeman. Ya is commonly interchangeable with e, and the pronunciation of a as e apparently only occurs after palatals and y.

Before the final k and ng the short a acquires the sound of o in 'mock' and it is then often also written o; thus, ta-bak and ta-bok, belly; lang and long, stone.

 \hat{A} is said to have a prolonged and guttural sound. It is often interchangeable with δ and u; thus, $ty\acute{a}t$ and $ty\acute{o}t$, to hack. Similarly u also interchanges with a in writing; thus, sun-mut, wind; mat, to blow.

 \overline{A} has the sound of a in 'far.' Sometimes, and apparently when followed by k or ng, it is pronounced like the o in 'mock.'

I has the sound of i in 'pin' and i is the corresponding long, or rather prolonged, sound. I have written i and not $\bar{\imath}$ in deference to Professor Grünwedel's spelling, and because i is distinguished from i by means of the same sign as a from a.

U is said to be pronounced somewhat like the French eu in 'jeu.' vol. III, PART I.

 \bar{U} is the long \bar{u} in 'rule.'

E has the sound of ay in 'day,' and also that of e in 'ten.'

O is pronounced as o in 'no.' It is very often replaced by \bar{u} ; thus, on and $\bar{u}n$, horse.

O is the broad o in 'nor,' 'for.'

O and δ are sometimes interchangeable with e; thus, $gly\delta t$, to let down; glyet, to let fall; hok and hyek, to husk.

The 'a which is written before y is apparently silent.

The usual pronunciation of the consonants does not call for any remark. In Tibetan words some of them occasionally assume another pronunciation.

Kr is sometimes pronounced as t and gr as d; thus, $kr\bar{u}$, pronounced $t\bar{u}$, a ship; grun, pronounced dun, a feast. R has sometimes a similar pronunciation; thus, $r\bar{a}n$ - $r\acute{o}$, pronounced $dr\bar{a}n$ - $dr\acute{o}$, or rather $d\bar{a}n$ - $d\acute{o}$, equal, like.

Z has the sound of \underline{dz} in words such as $\underline{dz\bar{a}m}$ - $b\bar{u}$ -ling, Jambudvipa.

Prefixes.—A very common prefix is \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -ry $\bar{u}m$, good. It is commonly prefixed to verbal roots in order to form nouns and adjectives; thus, chor, to be sour; \bar{a} -chor, sour; ti, to be great; \bar{a} -tim, large; thi, to arrive; \bar{a} -thit, arrival. It is also added to nouns in order to specify the meaning or to form diminutives; thus, $\bar{u}ng$, water; \bar{a} - $\bar{u}ng$, water in which meat has been boiled: $k\bar{u}ng$, a tree; \bar{a} - $k\bar{u}ng$, a bush.

The prefix \bar{a} is not a necessary part of the word, and it is often dropped; thus, \bar{a} -hám, pure; jer hám, pure gold: \bar{a} -tí, an egg; fo tí, a bird's egg. We are not as yet able to ascertain the rules regulating the retention or dropping of this \bar{a} . It seems as if it is commonly dropped when two words are put together as a compound.

There are several other prefixes in use. Some of them have still a definite meaning of their own. Others are apparently used as mere formatives. Such are ka, ta, pa, and sa in words such as ka- $l\bar{u}t$, bare, from $l\bar{u}t$, to uncover; ta- $kry\acute{o}ng$, praise, from $kry\acute{o}ng$, to praise; pa- $thy\bar{a}m$, arrangement, from $thy\bar{a}m$, to arrange; sa-tsuk and tsuk, sun; sa-ar, goat, etc. Compare the prefixed consonants of classical Tibetan.

Articles.—The numeral $k\bar{a}t$, one, is used as an indefinite article, and the suffix re has the meaning of a definite article. Thus, $mar\delta$ $k\bar{a}t$, a man; pa-no-re, the king. In connexion with numerals the suffix re is often replaced by mu; thus, $k\bar{a}t-mu$ $k\bar{a}t-k\bar{a}$ \mathcal{U} , the one said to the other.

Re and mu have another form, rem, and mum, respectively, in the accusative. Thus, hu pa-no-rem $sh\bar{u}$, he petitioned the king; $k\bar{a}t$ -mu $k\bar{a}t$ -mum li, the one said to the other. In this form, mu can be used after all sorts of nouns, definitely as well as indefinitely.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is expressed by using different words or by means of qualifying additions meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. The usual male affixes are ta-gri, for human beings; \bar{a} -bu, for animals; \bar{a} - $\underline{ts}u$, for goats, pigs, etc.; $l\acute{o}ng$, for some large animals; and the most common female ones are ta-'ayu, human beings; \bar{a} - $m\acute{o}t$, animals; \bar{a} -lyeng, young females rising to maturity; \bar{a} - $m\acute{t}$, a young pig; \bar{a} - $g\bar{u}$, a beast having borne young. The initial \bar{a} of such words is usually dropped. Thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother: pa-no, king; pun- $d\acute{t}$, queen: \bar{a} -num, elder brother;

 \bar{a} -nóm, elder sister: 'ayeng ta-grí, younger brother; 'ayeng ta-'ayu, younger sister: hik bu, cock; hik mót, hen: món $\underline{ts}u$, a boar; món mót, a sow: $ty\bar{a}ng$ -mo lóng, a male elephant; $ty\dot{a}ng$ -mo mót, a female elephant: rum-mít, a goddess: bik lyeng, a young matured cow that has not borne young: bik $g\bar{u}$, a matured cow: món mí, a sow that has not had young.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is nyum, and the plural is expressed by adding sang in the case of animate beings and pang in the case of inanimate objects. Nyum means 'the two,' both,' and it is often replaced by the usual numeral nyet, two. It is, therefore, perhaps more correct to say that there are only two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural suffixes sang and pang are pronounced sóng, póng, respectively. Examples of their use are ma-ró sang, men; lí-pang, houses. Pang can also be added in the case of animate beings; thus, ma-ró pang, men.

Case.—The base alone, without any suffix, is used as the subject of intransitive verbs, and as the object. The object can, however, be distinguished by adding rem or mum; compare the remarks under the head of the article. Thus, \bar{a} -bo-sa \bar{a} - $m\bar{u}$ -re $m\bar{a}k$ - $n\acute{o}n$ -ne, father-and mother-the died, the father and mother died; $go\ hu$ - $do\ kup\ ly\bar{u}p$, I his son beat, I have beaten his son; $ch\bar{a}p$ - $chhu\ sang$ - $rem\ l\acute{l}$, servants-to said, he said to the servants.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding nun; thus, \tilde{a} -kup tek-nun \tilde{a} -bo-rem shu, son small-by father-to said, the younger said to his father.

The suffix nun also forms an ablative; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}$ -nun, here-from, from here.

The genitive can be expressed by putting the governed before the governing word; thus, \bar{a} -do-sa \bar{a} -bo li- $k\bar{a}$, you-of father house-in, in your father's house. \bar{A} -do-sa. your, contains the suffix sa, which is commonly used in the genitive; thus, ka-su \bar{a} -bo-sa $ch\bar{a}p$ -chhu-sang, my father's servants.

The vocative is expressed by prefixing e and suffixing $w\bar{a}$ or \bar{a} , before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, e \bar{a} -bo- $w\bar{a}$, O father; e \bar{a} -kup- $p\bar{a}$, O child.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} -lon, behind; \bar{a} -min, under; \bar{a} -plang, upon; dun- $k\bar{a}$, in the presence of; $nah\bar{a}n$, before; $k\bar{a}$, to, in, at, for, on, upon, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are commonly formed from verbal bases by prefixing \bar{a} , and, if the verb ends in a vowel, by suffixing m; thus, $d\bar{u}$, to be white; \bar{a} - $d\bar{u}m$, white. Other adjectives are formed by adding the suffix bo; thus, $ry\bar{a}m$ -bo, beautiful.

Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify; thus, on \bar{a} - $d\bar{a}m$, the white horse.

The particle of comparison is len; thus, hado yeng hado nóm len rhen, his brother his sister than tall, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Higher numbers are counted in twenties; thus, $kh\bar{a}$ nyet, forty; $kh\bar{a}$ fa-ng \bar{u} , twenties five, hundred.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

go, I.	$h\acute{o}$, thou.	hu, he, she, it.		
ka-sum, me.	$h\acute{o}$ - mum , thee.	hum, him, her, it.		
go-num, by me.	hó-nun, by thee.	hu-nun, by him, her, it.		
ka-su, my.	$h\acute{o}$ -sa, thy.	hu-sa, his, her, its.		
ka-su-nun, from me.	hó-nun, from thee.	hu-nun, from him, her, it.		
ka-nyi, we two.	\bar{a} -ny i , you two.	hu-nyí, ha-nyí, they two.		
ka - $y\bar{u}$, $k\bar{a}$, we.	\bar{a} - $y\bar{u}$, you.	hu - $y\bar{u}$, ha - $y\bar{u}$, they.		
$ka-y\bar{u}m$, us.	ā-yūm, you.	hu - $y\bar{u}m$, ha - $y\bar{u}m$, them.		
$ka-y\bar{u}-nun$, $k\bar{a}-nun$, by us.	\bar{a} - $y\bar{u}$ - nun , by you.	$hu-y\bar{u}-nun$, $ha-y\bar{u}-nun$, by them.		
ka - $y\tilde{u}$ - sa , $k\tilde{a}$ - sa , our.	\bar{a} - $y\bar{u}$ - sa , your.	hu - $y\bar{u}$ - sa , ha - $y\bar{u}$ - sa , their.		

These pronouns can be emphasized by adding the particle do; thus, ka-do, I myself; ka- $y\bar{u}$ -do, we ourselves; \bar{a} -do, $h\acute{o}$ -do, thou thyself; \bar{a} - $ny\acute{\iota}$ -do, you two yourselves; hu-do, ha-do, he himself, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are \bar{a} -re, this; o-re, that. The particle do can be added; thus, o-re-do-pang, those very things. The simple bases \bar{a} and o are used as demonstrative adjectives; thus, \bar{a} $n\bar{a}m$ kup, this year only; o nyi-lung, under those circumstances.

Interrogative pronouns are to, who? sa-re, which? $sh\bar{u}$, what? The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives; thus, ma-ro to-num $z\bar{u}k$ -re, the man who did it. The most common way of expressing relativity is, however, by means of participles; thus, ta- $ly\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ $j\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}$ rum, heaven-in living God, the God who is in heaven; ka-su kup \bar{a} -re $m\bar{a}k$ -non- $b\bar{u}$ -re, my son this dead-gone-the, this my son who had died. Participles can also be used in connexion with interrogative pronouns; thus, sa-tet ka-su ka- $k\bar{a}$ $th\bar{u}p$ -shyet nyi-wung-re ka-sum nong-wa, how-much my share getting-for being-the me-to give; give me the share which falleth to me. It will be seen that the article re is, in such cases, added to the usual verbal participles.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding la to the interrogatives; thus, to-na-la, anybody; $sh\bar{u}-la$, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs do not change for person and number. Some forms show a preference for certain persons, but this tendency has not been developed. In the case of the verb bo, to give, there are two different forms, viz., bo, when the object is of the first or second person, and by i, when the object is of the third person.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used with the meaning of a verb substantive. The most usual ones are gum, gó, go, $g\bar{a}$. ka, and nyi. Gum is used in all persons and numbers; gó is usually, but not always, employed in the second person, and especially interrogatively; go is common in negative clauses and without regard to person; $g\bar{a}$ is almost wholly confined to the negative; ka is almost invariably combined with a particle, and generally refers relatively to a neuter subject; and nyi is used in all persons and numbers.

Finite verb.—Some verbal bases ending in a vowel undergo certain changes before auxiliary verbs, such as khv, to be able; lel, to be finished; gat, to desire; mat,

to do, and also before several other suffixes. In such cases m, n, or t is added to the base. Thus, $l\ell$, to speak; lin-khu, to be able to speak; $sh\ell$, to see; $sh\ell m-khu$, to be able to see; $d\ell$, to come; $d\ell t-det$, about to come, and so forth.

Some verbal suffixes are used with an indefinite meaning, without reference to time. Such are $m\tau$, ma-o, yam-o, and sa-o. The first three are used with the meaning of a present or past; thus, $go\ p\acute{\iota}$ -ma, I am writing, or, have written; $l\acute{o}t$ - $th\ddot{u}b$ -ma, he has been found again; $hu\ th\acute{\iota}$ -ma-o, he has arrived; $hu\ m\ddot{a}k$ -yam-o, he is dead. The final o of such forms should be compared with the assertive o of Tibetan.

Sa-o applies more to the present or future; thus, go nóng-sa-o, I shall go.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present; thus, $go ly\bar{u}p$, 1 beat. The base $b\bar{a}m$, to remain, to be, is commonly added; thus, $go lik-b\bar{a}m$, I call.

Participles ending in det and ung are commonly also used with the meaning of a present; thus, hu $m\bar{a}k$ -det, he is dying; $h\acute{o}$ $ly\bar{u}p$ -pung, thou strikest.

The same is the case with the forms ending in $p\bar{a}$, such as nyi- $p\bar{a}$, it is; $ry\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$, it is good. Compare the Tibetan article pa.

Past time.—The base alone is commonly used as a past tense; thus, go li, I said; $b\bar{a}m$, he lived.

Participles ending in ung, $p\bar{a}$, and bo are often used in the same way; thus, $h\acute{o}$ buk-kung, thou struckest; $l\acute{o}t$ -di- $p\bar{a}$, he returned; nyim- $b\bar{u}$, he was.

A past tense is also formed by adding $b\bar{a}$; thus, $go\text{-}nun\ lik-b\bar{a}$, I called; $go\ buk-b\bar{a}m$ - $b\bar{a}$, I strike-remained, I was striking.

A periphrastic past is formed by adding $f\bar{a}t$, to finish, to complete; thus, lik- $f\bar{a}t$ or lik- $f\bar{a}t$ - $b\bar{a}$, called, or, had called. Te is sometimes added; thus, shong- $f\bar{a}t$ -te, he wasted.

Te is perhaps a suffix e with reduplication of the preceding t. If so, it is connected with the suffix ne in n'o n-ne, went.

Future.—The usual future is formed by adding sho; thus, shu-sho, I shall say. Sho is connected with the suffix shang, or shong in go buk-shong, I shall strike. According to the list of words such forms are only used in the first person. The suffix shang is, however, commonly used to form an indefinite future participle.

The list of words gives forms such as buk-shet, thou wilt strike, he will strike, in the second and third persons. The suffix shet is used to form verbal nouns and infinitives of purpose; thus, \underline{tsam} , to hold; \underline{tsam} -shet, handle; thap-shyet nyi-wung-re, getting-for being-the, that which should be got.

Note also the suffixes $pa-r\acute{o}$, which implies a doubt, and $t\bar{u}ng$, which is used to form a kind of subjunctive; thus, $go sh\acute{\iota}-pa-r\acute{o}$, I may perhaps see him; $go-nun \ \bar{a}-y\bar{u}m \ l\acute{\iota}-t\bar{u}ng$, I would have told you.

What may possibly take place is denoted by adding the suffix $p\bar{u}$; thus, go lik- $p\bar{u}$, i may perhaps call; go lik-shang- $p\bar{u}$, I shall perhaps call.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding o; thus, $d\ell$ -o, come. In verbs ending in a consonant, a is added and the preceding consonant is doubled; thus, $m\bar{a}t$ -ta or $m\bar{a}t$ -ta-o, do. Sometimes we also find forms such as $l\ell$ -a or $l\ell$ -a-o, speak.

The suffix wa in nong-wa, give, is only another way of writing o.

A periphrastic imperative is formed by adding kón, to permit, to the base; thus, ka-sum lik-kón, or lík-kòn-na-o, let me call.

Verbs ending in a vowel assume the full form mentioned above before this $k\acute{o}n$; thus, $sh\acute{i}$, to see; $sh\acute{i}m$ - $k\acute{o}n$, let him, etc., see: $by\acute{i}$, give; byin- $k\acute{o}n$, let him, etc., give: $d\acute{i}$, come; $d\acute{i}t$ - $k\acute{o}n$, let him, etc., come.

An imperative of the third person is also formed by prefixing ta and suffixing sa; thus, $hum\ ta$ - $m\bar{a}t$ -sa, let him do it.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ is used in the first person; thus, \bar{a} - $g\acute{o}$ - \bar{a} -nyi $m\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$, let us make merry.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing nun; thus, ma-li-nun, don't speak.

Verbal nouns and participles.—All the forms mentioned under the head of the various tenses are properly verbal nouns or participles.

The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, thi, to arrive; thi-re, the arrival, etc. By adding various postpositions adverbial clauses can be formed. Such postpositions are gang, if; go-rūng, though; shen, when, etc. Thus, go li-gang, if I speak; ka-sum sót-go-rūng, though you kill me; khya-shen, when he came.

The verbal nouns formed by adding shet have already been mentioned.

The same is the case with the present participle ending in det; thus, lik-det, calling, about to call.

The most usual participle is formed by adding wung, or ung, before which a final consonant is doubled; thus, li-wung, saying; māt-tung, doing. This participle is also used as a noun in connexion with the postposition sa; thus, shang-lel-lung-sa, to-waste-finishing-on, after he had wasted; lik-kung-sa la, calling-on even, immediately on calling.

The suffix shang has been mentioned under the head of future. It forms an indefinite future participle, and also an infinitive of purpose; thus, lik-shang, calling, about calling; bro-shang, in order to tend.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding $b\bar{a}n$, i.e., probably $b\bar{a}$ and the conjunction un, and, and lung; thus, $zo-b\bar{a}n$, having eaten; lik-lung, having called.

The relative participle is commonly formed by adding the suffix bo or $b\bar{u}$; thus, $ta-ly\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}j\bar{u}-b\bar{u}$ rum, heaven-in living God, the God who lives in heaven.

The participle ending in *ung* or *wung* is also commonly used as a relative participle. The article *re* is commonly added. Thus, *lók-kung-re*, expending the, that which has been expended. It will be seen that the whole relative clause has here been compounded into one single noun.

The suffix m which forms adjectives of verbal bases can also be considered as the suffix of a relative participle. Compare Khambu m, me, etc.

Passive voice.—There is no proper passive voice. Instead of 'I am struck' the Lepchas say 'somebody struck me.' The bases thôm, to place, and nông, to go, are sometimes added in order to form a kind of passive; thus, pí-thôm-bo, written; môk-nôn, expended.

Causals.—Causal verbs are formed by inserting a y after the initial consonant. Thus, $th\acute{or}$, to escape; $thy\acute{or}$, to cause to escape: $th\acute{op}$, to knock down; $thy\acute{op}$, to cause to knock down. A final ng is then changed to n; thus, $d\acute{ang}$, to run; $dy\acute{an}$, to fling away: $n\acute{ong}$, to go; $ny\acute{on}$, to cause to go.

Other causals are formed by adding kón, to permit; māt, to do. Thus, buk-kón, to cause to beat; go-la māt, merrily make, to gladden.

Verbs such as $ny\delta n$, cause to go; $hry\delta n$, raise; byi, give, etc., are often affixed to other verbs, giving an emphatic transitive sense; thus, $\delta p-ny\delta n$, to fire off; dun-byi, to tell to, to relate; li-bi, he said, etc.

Other auxiliaries used in the formation of compound verbs are khu, to be able; $g\bar{a}t$, to desire, to be wanted; te, which implies a doubt, and so forth. Thus, $z\bar{u}k-khu$, to be able to do; $go\ n\'ong-g\bar{a}t$, I want to go; $sum-g\acute{o}-g\bar{a}t-p\bar{a}$, to-be-glad-is-wanted, we should make merry; $sh\bar{u}\ z\bar{u}k-ka-te$, what can be done? Te can also be used after the suffix $f\bar{a}t$ in the past tense. See above. Compare also $b\bar{a}m-nyi-de$, livest.

Irregular verbs.—The verbs $n\'{o}ng$, to go; $hr\'{o}ng$, to arise; $fr\'{o}ng$, to point out, are irregular, their past base being formed by changing the final ng to n; thus, go $n\'{o}n$, I went.

Negative particle.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing ma and suffixing ne; thus, ma $n\'{o}ng$ -ne, you did not give; ma nyin-ne, it is not. The latter example shows that verbs ending in a vowel often double the n of the suffixed ne.

Interrogative particle.—In such queries as do not contain an interrogative pronoun, the interrogative particle a is added; thus, $h\acute{o}$ \bar{a} -lom $l\acute{e}$ -a, did you say so? A is sometimes also used in connexion with other interrogatives; thus, $h\acute{o}$ sa-thā khya-shang-a, you when arrive-will?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the works mentioned above under the head of authorities and to the specimens which follow. They have both been kindly prepared by Mr. David MacDonald. A list of Standard Words and Phrases, which has been forwarded from Darjeeling, will be found on pp. 255 and ff.

[No. 24.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN I.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

कित हा कि सिंहें हैं हैं। महिंद ति हा सिंहें हैं हैं। साठ हैं 6) 1 & 2(10 00 W) 50 (2 10) (2 2 4(1) = 4(1) \) \(\tilde{\chi}\) (m) (70 @ 1 (2) (4) n) 4 EJ 4 (* cm cm) 5 (c) 5 50 E (p) cm सारि ना १८०१ प्राप्त द्वा कारे सा साम ता तारे हिल के के の(名) が(構養を発行前(名) が) (100 (101) (101) (12) (10 で) をにいていりのに見りりのりがりかにないでにないののであり म) हिं (4 10 (4 0) म(* २(० ०० ०० ६ ८०) १०। है) (२ ० ० ४ में) हो 10 3 50 D 1 (2 > 1 + 1 × 2 (0 0 (10) + 1 0) 0 € (10 Cm 2 (刘如仙仙佛感不鸣到玉凉春明不知。 र्दार् रा। (७ गिरे गा) हता है।।० गा। गा है। है। है है।।० ल्हा ७ 高) 2·(11) 4 (15) 03 广) Cm 克) 名((* Cm 年) 天(10)((E 书) 声(文) (() 2(1* Cm 2(£) 93 46 10 7 00 D & Em) 2(1* Cm 1/2) 4Cm लिस सिक्त किला (२० ५) की की भा साल का कि 5* ス(1 色のも(* (0 分) 4業) & 下) (* モ(SE の(を) 手が を(n)) मि हैं। हैं हैं। मिं हैं। मिं

(思知(女(本 (思(是) 高) 為了(東王(高(京王 第) 女) (南 了本 (四) (भागा) गैर्या है। हैं हैं के कै। है साह ही हैं के। वहां (धा मा है) म *3 50 50 R(1* cm s) का लि 5% र। है। सि सा (10 है) है। वह र। E) (W (E 9W + 7) & (TU) & (TU! COU T) B) T() EN +) COU (W) (11) 500 cm (16) El 7 (10) 10 | Blcm 2) (= E (10) 1 (10) El E (10) サギラぞる 1 も) あり 思((O j e) (いる) 思(を あ 思(* cm が x) e) ス(第) cm >(0) 名((* cm (そる(ぜ) D) (名((0) (い か) (せ の) そ cm) Cu > (1) = Cu) (3) 9 Cu Cu & = (2) (1) 2 (5) = 5 (9 € Cu &) (# = 1 (m 2(f) = (N 2 (TO D) f N. 2(1* (m 2(f) 2(7 22))(m 3) +(* 3) (* =(6)) (5 = 1 8(10) (3) (6) & 2(2) 7 (4 2 6) の天仙) (m 年天(Ö()本本常) (m 下山) の天仙) (m)本(の) [कि साक के ला है के सही साल साई है। वा है। व्या का वि त्रा हो १७१६ १० ४॥४ ८० १० ४१ १ ई। कि छि हो के है। किछा कि भेर विश्व

[No. 24.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN I.

TRANSLITERATION AND TRANSLATION.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

Ma-ró kāt-sa ā-kup nyet nyi. Ha-nyí nóng-kā ā-kup tek-nun Man one-of 80*n*8 twowere. Both among sonsmall-by ā-bo-rem shu. 'е ā-bo-wa, gyū-gi-cho-nun sa-tet ka-su ka-kā father-to said, · 0 father, substance-wealth-from how-much sharemythūp-shyet nyi-wung-re ka-sum nóng-wa.' O-tha hu-nun ha-yūm ha-do-sa getting-for being-that me-to give.' Then him-by them-to his Sa-'ayāk ā-gyāp rit-bi-fāt-te. gyū-gi-cho ma-bām ā-kup tek-nun Daysproperty divide-give-finished. many not-going son small-by gyū-gi-cho tyáng gyom-bu-ban lyāng ā-rum kāt-kā nóng-lung property allgathered-carried-having country far one-to going 'ayūk-kā ha-do-sa gyū-gi-cho-pang o-bā ā-jen-sa shang-fat-te. Hu-nun there evil-of work-in his-own goods to-scatter-finished. Him-by tyáng shang-lel-lung-sa ā-lūn o-thā lyāng o-re-kā krit-nām allto-scatter-completing-finishing-of after then country that-in famine ngūn-nón-ne. Un hu zóm-shet ma-nyin ngūn-nón. Un hu to-happen-went. And he foodwithout became. And he nong-lung lyang o-re-sa ma-ró kāt-sa chhó-lung bām. \mathbf{U} n hu-nun going country that-of man one-of joining lived. And him-by ha-dūm ha-do-sa nyót-kā món bro-shang klóng. Un món hu zo him his-own field-in swinefeeding-for sent.he And swine food la zo-bān ha-do ta-bók blen-shang sak-ching. $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{n}$ to-na-la eaten-having even ownbelly filling-for intended. And anyone ha-dūm shū-la O-thā ha-do $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ bin-ne. tem-bo lāt-lung hu-nun him-to anything notgave. Then own consciousness coming him-by lí, 'ka-su ā-bo-sa chāp-chhu-sang-sa zóm-shet nyi-wung-kā thóm-shet-la 'my father-of said, servants-of eating-for being-in spare-to-even Shen-la nyi-pā. go-na krit-dók-lung māk-det-pā. Go lūk-lung ka-su Butis. \boldsymbol{I} hungering die. \boldsymbol{I} arising my ā-bo nóng-bān lyang shu-sho, "e ā-bo-wa, go-nun ta-lyāng-kā jū-bū " O father near gone-having say-will, father, me-by heaven-in living

zūk-fāt-te. Go ā-do-sa ā-kup dun-kā lā-yo rum-sa ā-do-sa un to-make-finished. presence-in sinyour sonGod-of andyou-of Ka-sum ā-do-sa chāp-chhu-sang nóng-kā kāt ma-wa-ne. ngun-shang la your Me servantsamong not-worthy. one be-to even zang ngān-kon-na."' O-tha hu lūk-lung ha-do ā-bo lvang lót-di-pā. be-let." Then he arising own father near back-came. like ha-dūm ā-rum-do-kā shi-bān kyón-dyít ha-do Shen-la bo-nun him distance-at seen-having compassion father-by But hispa-tóp-kā ká-bān chūk-māt. dáng-nón-bān ha-do māt-lung kiss-made. hisneck-on embraced-having run-gone-having making ā-bo-wa. go-nun ta-lyāng-kā jū-bū rum-sa un A-kup-re-nun shu, • e Heaven-in father, me-by living God-of andSon-the-by said, zūk-fāt-te. Ā-lang-nun-pel ā-do-sa ā-kup lāyo ā-do-sa dun-kā to-do-finished. Henceforth sinyour sonyou-of presence-in lí, ma-wa-ne.' Shen-la ā-bo-re-nun chāp-chhu-sang-rem ngūn-shang la servants-to said, not-worthy.' Butfather-the-by be-to even'tyang lyen ryūm-bū dum ā-ká-kā dūt-bān ha-dūm dem-bi. Un brought-having And hand-on goodclothhim put-on. 'all then ā-gó-ā-nyí ā-thūng-kā lhóm chók-bi-wa. ka-yū zo-bān $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{n}$ ka-kyup, feet-on eating merriment shoesto-put-give. And ring, we lót-zū-bām-pā; Shū-go-yo-gang, ka-su kup māk-nón-bū-re, māt-kā. ā-re again-living-is; make-let. What-is-so-if. sonthisdead-gone-the, lót-thūb-ma.' fāt-nón-bū-re, O-thā ha-vū ā-gó-ā-nyí māt-ma-o. again-found-is.' Then they lost-gone-the, merriment made.

O-thā ha-do-sa ā-kup num-fren-re nyót-kā bām-nyi. Un hu Then his son elder-the field-in And hewas. li-sa lót-di-lung ā-zut-kā khyá-shen pa-lit tung-dyū-sa lók-tsūt house-of back-coming nearness-in arriving flute harp-of dance ā-sūt thyo-lung chāp-chhu kāt-rem 'ā-re bām-mung-sa lik-bān vet. going-one-of soundhearing servant onecalled-having asked, 'this go?' shū ngūn-bām-mung Hu-nun ha-dūm lí-bi, 'ā-do-sa 'aying going-on is? Him-by him-to younger-brother what said. 'your ā-do lót-thi-ma, un bo-nun dun kāt klóng-ma. Shū-go-yo-gang, back-arrived, andyou**r** father-by feast bestowed. Because, oneha-dūm ā-ryūm-ā-ryām-sa tsum-thūp-pā. li-sa Shen-la hu sāk-lyāk-lung him-to safe-and-sound met-got-is.' Butangry-being house-of he góng-kā ma plá-lung nóng-ne. Ā-sa tun-dók-kā ā-bo-re lyāng-kā inside not went. This-of father-the outsidecoming account-on nām ā-do-sa yák-ma. ha-dūm Hu-nun ā-bo-rem 'go-nun ā-tet shu. him entreated. Him-by father-to said, yearsyour 'me-by so-many

chāp-chhu shu-pā, sa-thā-la ā-do-sa kó hyók-ne. un $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ servicedo, wordbroke. andever-even your notO-lo-go-rung ho-nun sa-thā-la ka-su tyól-sang-sa dep-ka ka-sum Thus-was-though thee-by friends-of me-to ever mycompany-in ā-gó-ā-nyí māt-shang-sa tun-dók-ka sa-ār-kup kāt la \mathbf{ma} nóng-ne. merriment making-of account-on goat-young oneevennotgavest.Shen-la ā-do-sa ā-kup ā-re chhe-mū-sang-sa dep-kā ā-do-sa gyū-gi-cho Butharlots-of company-in your 80n thisgoodsyour zo-fāt-bū-re, lót-thi-wung-sa-do, ho-nun na-do tun-dók-kā dun to-devour-finisher-the, back-coming-on, histhee-by sake-for feast • e klóng-ma.' Ā-bo-re-nun ā-kup-pa, ho-ta shūkna sūng, ka-su-sa bestowedest.' Father-the-by said, 0 80n, thoualwaysme-of dep-kā bām-nyi-de. \mathbf{U} n sa-re-gun-na ka-su-sa nyi-wung-re, tyáng art.company-in whateverminebeing-the, And allā-do-sa nyim-bā. Shen-la ka-yū ā-gó-ā-nyí māt-gāt, $\mathbf{u}\mathbf{n}$ sum-gó thine is.Butmerriment make-should, weandto-be-glad gāt-pā. Shū-go-yo-gang, 'ayíng ā-re ā-do-sa māk-nón-bū-re. necessary-is. Because, younger-brother thisdead-gone-the, your lót-zū-bām-ma; fāt-nón-bū-re, lót-thūb-ma-o.' again-lived; lost-gone-the, again-found-is.'

[No. 25.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RONG.

SPECIMEN II.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

[No. 25.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LEPCHA OR RÓNG.

SPECIMEN II.

(Mr. David MacDonald, 1899.)

'Ayā lyāng kāt-kā phyuk-bū ma-ró-num-vóm nyet-kā ā-zóm richman-married-couple two-toFormerly country one-in foodgyū-gi-chó nyem-bū-kā ta-grí kup kāt nvi-pā. Ā-bo ā-thven ā-mū drinkriches being-in male childone was. Father mother 'ayūk phyuk-bū-sa ā-kup ngūn-bān shū-la zūk $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ thup-ne become-having workto-do notbeing-got rich-of son any ā-bo-sa bām-nyi-shen, ā-lūn-nun ā-mū-re māk-nón-ne. Hu afterwards father-and mother-the to-die-went. He living, zūk-thóm-bū ngũn-bān ā-bo phyuk-bū kup ā-mū-nun gi-chó-pang father rich-man's become-having mother-by made-laid-by riches gi-chó-pang mók-nón-ne, ā-zóm ā-thyen-pang zóm-lel-nun, gun-la to-eat-finishing, riches exhausted-became, food drinkaltogether mók-nón-ne. • Wū-du-lung ma-ró lyāng khyóm-brām-lung ā-zóm-zo-sa exhausted-became. Hungering men withroaming-straying food-eating nyin-bān māk-nón-ne. \mathbf{m} a died. notbeing

'Ayūk-thā lyang o-re-kā bo mū ma-nyin-nung-sa rvót At-the-same-time country that-in father mother not-being orphan ā-jen \mathbf{k} ā \mathbf{t} nyi. O-re hu-re sa-nyi-so-nap kup yang, li-sa ma-nyin-ne. poor That childwas. he day-night one80, saying not-is, 'avūk zūk, nyót zūk, rip-shing sa-re nyi-wung-pang-la ryū-la field cultivated, flower-gardens did, workwhich being-ever wellgyū-gi-chó-lā thík-lyang zūk; o-bā-sa ma-ró-pang-kā-la ā-zóm bi, did; property authority there-of men-to-also foodgave, ma-nyin-bū-kā-la gi-chó gi-chó o-re-nun ta-lyāng-kā bi-ma. $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{n}$ jūbū not-being-to-also property property therefore heaven-in gave. And living thū-ji-gun-ran-nun rum-sa lyang o-re-sa pa-no ngun-ban God-ofbenignity-favour-from place that-of king become-having bām-nyi-ma. lived.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a rich married couple lived in a certain town. They had money and enough to eat and drink. They got one son. Being the child of rich parents he lived without having anything to do. Afterwards his parents died, and he, who was the son of wealthy parents, squandered the property which his father and mother had left. His money went away, and nothing was left to eat and drink. Starving he wandered about, and at last he died from want of food.

In the same country there was a poor orphan. He worked day and night in the fields, in the flower gardens, and did well all he was set to do. He became wealthy and got authority. He gave the people of that place food, and on those who were poor he bestowed wealth. Through God's mercy he therefore became the king of that place.

ΤΌΤΌ.

The Ṭōṭōs live in the Sub-Himalayas, in the Baxa subdivision of Jalpaiguri. They are considered to have immigrated from Bhutan. They are a very wild tribe, and no non-Ṭōṭō knows their language. There is said to be only one Ṭōṭō in existence who knows a little Bengali besides his own language. The materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey have been put together with his assistance. They comprise an incomplete list of Standard Words and Phrases, and a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, to which are appended some numerals and pronouns. The Parable was not accompanied by an interlinear translation, and being much abbreviated is difficult to interpret. I have added a tentative translation of most of it. I do not, however, feel certain that it is correct.

During the preliminary operations of this Survey the number of speakers in Jalpaiguri was estimated at 200. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

The materials available are far from being sufficient for giving even the most superficial sketch of Tōṭō grammar. I must content myself to make some scattered remarks on such points as seem tolerably certain.

Nouns, Adjectives, and Numerals.—The genitive is formed by adding the suffix k; thus, dodong-be-k, of a man. The ng preceding the b of this word is probably pronounced as an m, for we also find dudum-bi, man. The latter form shows that o and u, e and i, respectively, are interchangeable.

Adjectives can end in one of the suffixes $n\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{a}$; thus, $ent\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, good; $chisa\bar{\imath}-m\bar{a}$, younger; $disu\bar{\imath}-m\bar{a}$, elder. Other certain instances do not occur.

The numerals most closely correspond to those in use in Lhoke. Higher numbers are, however, counted in twenties; thus, $ng\bar{a} \ k\bar{a}i$, five scores, hundred; ni- $kw\bar{a}i$ - $t\bar{a} \ s\bar{e}$, two-scores-ten, fifty.

Pronouns.—The following forms of the personal pronouns occur in the specimens:—

 $k\bar{a}$ -te, I. $n\bar{a}g\bar{a}$, thou. $d\hat{e}\bar{a}$, $k\bar{o}$, he. $k\bar{a}$ -tek, $n\bar{a}$ -

 $k\bar{a}i\text{-}piu$, me. $m\bar{o}dang$, you. $d\tilde{e}a\ h\bar{a}\text{-}ji\ nin\bar{a}$, they.

deninimi, denimam, nā-te, we. mōdang-bi-kō, mo-be, your.

nāt-kō kungō, our.

 $nimus\bar{a}$, us.

Interrogative pronouns are $h\tilde{a}$, who ? $h\tilde{a}$ -rang-ga, why?

Verbs.—The base ni is used to form a verb substantive; thus, dodong-be-k chāi ni- $s\bar{a}$ ni- $n\bar{a}$, man-of sons two-persons were, a man had two sons.

The present tense can be formed by adding the suffix ro; thus, iung-ro, thou livest.

Several suffixes are used to form a past tense. The base alone apparently occurs in tui, he ran. A suffix pur is added in $h\bar{a}y$ -pur, he went. The suffix ro is used in chase-ro, he lived. It is perhaps connected with lo in luang-lo, he wasted.

ŢŌŢŌ. 251

A suffix chhā seems to occur in pu-chhā, said; pi-chhā, gave.

A more common suffix is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $ting-n\bar{a}$, he saw; $pu\bar{\imath}-n\bar{a}$, he said; $iy\hat{a}-pu-n\bar{a}$, they made merry.

A suffix miā seems to occur in forms such as pi-miā, gave; ho-miā, he went, etc.

The suffix pur is also used to form a future; thus, lo-pur, I will arise; $h\bar{a}\text{-}pur$, I will go. At the end of the original manuscript of the Parable I find the forms $h\bar{a}\text{-}pur\bar{a}$, I shall go; $ch\bar{a}\text{-}puro$, I shall eat; $\bar{a}mb\bar{a}lilo$, I shall look.

The forms $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, let us eat; $iy\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, let us make merry, are futures or imperatives.

A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix e; thus, ku-e, in order to tend; pu-e, to say.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding $pu-n\bar{a}$; thus, $lu\bar{\imath}-pu-n\bar{a}$, having wasted; $hu\bar{\imath}-pu-n\bar{a}$, having gone; $ch\bar{a}-pu-n\bar{a}$, having eaten.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ -ro, I will not go; $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -ro, I will not eat; ma-pu-e, not to say; ma-jang, I am not.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the fragmentary list of words on pp. 255 and ff.

VOL. III, PART I.

[No. 26.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

ŢŌŢŌ.

(DISTRICT JALPAIGURI.)

'ā-pā pu-chhā, Chisaī-mā chāoā ni-nā. Dodong-be-k chāi ni-sā 'father 80% said, Younger Man-of twowere. sons hā etabang pichhā mana oā-nā. Mo-koe pichā.' Kaoā kaoā ko Not give. Share gaveshare me hā-pur tatu' hidang gotāenā jamāe-nā iung-pu-nā chāoā jeding wentgatheredcollectedremained-having son kairāmat chākā luang-lo. Tang konggoe mang-ta-u-ta huī-punā $b\bar{a}$ And property eating wasted.gone-having alland there $N\bar{a}$ matar. jârang-pu-nā hāt-par merā häyer luī-punā u-mang-ta And famine-arising wasted-having there goe lomā bit Gaga luhe ku-e piţu. Ko pākā teskā chikâ-tā chasero. swinetend-to sent.even lived. Hе one-with citizen Kaŭeng hārang jang nāgā āsegā $\mathbf{dey}\mathbf{\tilde{a}}$ pui-na, ma-pue deyā pi-miā. chā-pur said,himnot-saying gave. eatLo-pur sung-punā. ā-pā luti-hāyje-nā āsugā si-punā lābà 'kong-goe Arise-will 'all father's jinang dong-gang-ta, pā-lā, "du' pā-na karang-ie hā-pur pue, before, Heaven my-father-to to-say, " O father, sinnedgo-willhãy-pur. deyā.", Hingda-nina kang-nā chāoā ma-pâe, eng-ţā-pā went. make." father-to not-to-say, servantArose son Chāoā pung-sa châi-po-nā. ibâng-tā-ni-nā, tui Chāoā á-pā ting-nā, Son kissed. far-was, father saw, Son Deā рā ma-jang.' ā-pâ' jang-su-nā eyây-su-nā, 'ā-pâ', doim Hisfathernot-am. father 'father, karâv korang kui 'ang-dun ājoi'; eng-dāpâ-ni-nā, jup-tā kei servants-to-said, shoe'cloth hand feet ring nā-nā; ing-pu-nā tang-bā; denimam chā-nā iyā-nā; si-pu-nā died-having lived; lost-being eat-should feast-should; put; we Iyâ-pu-nā. mung-cha-nā.' found-was.' Merry-made.

Disuī-mā chāoā ni-le iyâ yong sā nānu hing-nā iā-nā. Lere hārāng-gā Eldest80n house was why jinisiā. Tang-miā lokâi ho-miā mung-chi-mea,' eng-tā-pā mungcha-miā. went found-has-been,' servant answered.

Chidang pā-nā mo-hā oye. Siritā oā-tu.

*Anger made not-went inside.

ʻ Ā-pa, emi hie jämäre netâk hĩe ete i-pu ma-iāp; thy-word not-transgressed; ' Father, thee-of dodong-be-ihi mau-mi-sha' chā-pu-ga'. Etårang chā-pu-nā pupu $to\mbox{-}eat\mbox{-}gavest.$ eating harlotry men-withneverkharach jei-sā.' 'Lating jei-pu-nā mo-be tangka luk-pu-nā made.squandered-having expenditure made-having your money dâ-pā iung-ro, nā-ţâk ṭāngkā nini-mi-mung choro. A si-pu-nā gā-nā; livest, thine is.He died-having lived; mymoney iyang-pu-na mung-chena deda a-pa-cha-na mung-che-na. lost-being found-was found-was.'

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

Englis	sh.			Gurung (N	(epal).	1	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwär (Darjeeling).	Magar (Nepal).
1. One .	•	•	-	Ghri .			Ki; gi	•	Kâ	Kat
2. Two .		•		Nhi .		•	Ngi; nhi .		Nishi	Nis
3. Three				Sõ, sou .			Som		Sang	Som
4. Four	•			Vli; bhli			Pli; bli		Le	Buli
5. Five		,		Ngā; nheo			Ngā		(Ngō)	Banga
6. Six .	•			Ţū .			Ţu		Ruku	Chha
7. Seven		•		Nī .		•	Nis .		(Chani)	Sāt
8. Eight		•		Pre, bhre			Pre; bre .		(Yoh) • •	Āṭh
9. Nine .		•		Ku .			Ku		Nau, (guh)	Nau
10. Ten .	•		0	Chiu .			Chui; chiu .		Das, (sashi) ,	Das
ll. Twenty				Nhī-siu .	•		Bhogal		. Pīs, (khal-kā) .	Bīs
12. Fifty .				Ngā chiu	•		Bhogal ni-se chui	•	. Pachās, (khāk nishi sasi-kā)	Pachās
13. Hundred	•		•	Pra; bhra	•	• .	Bhogal ngā .	•	Sahe, (swai-kā)	Saya
14 T		•			•		Ngā	•	. Go	Ngā
15. Of me	•			Nga-lā .			. Ngå-lä	•	. A-ke	Ngau, (ngo)
16. Mine	•	•		Nga-e	•		Ngā-lā		. A-ke-me	N
	•	•	·	Nheo-jaga			Ngā-ni		. Go pati	T -
17. We .	•	•	•	Nheo-jaga-la	•		. Ngā-ni kāde-lā .		Go pati äng-ke	Känung .
18. Of us	•	,	,	271 . 1	•	•	. Ngā-ni kāde-lā .		Gowã-ke	Kānung .
19. Our .	•	•	•		•	•		•		Nanc
20. Thou	•	•	•		•	•	Ye-lā	•		
21. Of thee	t	•	•		r			•		Nango
22. Thine	•	•	•	Ki-la .	•	•	Ye-lā	•		Nango
23. You .	•	•	•	Ki .	•	•	Ye	•		Nāko
24. Of you	•	•	•	Ki-la .	•	•	Ye·lā .	•		Nakung
25. Your .	•	•	•	Nha-mae-jaga	a-la	•	. Ye-lā	•	. Ge-ke de	Nākung

IN THE NON-PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN DIALECTS.

Nēwārî (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Rong (Darjeeling).	Ţōţô¹ (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Chhi · · ·	. Thi-ki	. Kāt	Chē	1. One.
Nasi • •	. Nisi	Nyet	. Nē	2. Two.
56	. Songo	Sām	Sung	3. Three.
Pi	. Pingi	. Fa-lí	Jī	4. Four.
Ngā • •	. Ngongu	. Fa-ngū	Ngā	5. Five.
ζhu	. Khugu	. Ta-rok	, Ţā • ·	6. Six.
Nhaye; nhasa .	. Nhāgi	. Ka-kyok	. Dun	7. Seven.
Chyā	. Chegi	. Ka-ku	Gē, ñē	8. Eight.
G ũ	. Gugu	. Ka-kyót	. Gu	9. Nine.
Sānha	. Jigi	. Ka-tí	. Chu-tāmbā, twāsē	10. Ten.
Ngie	. Ni-i-gi; ni-gi	. Khā kāt	Nisa	11. Twenty.
Ngae	. Nge-e-gi; nge-gi .	. Khā nyet sa ka-tí .	. Ni-kwāi-tāsē, or chu-tāmbā	12. Fifty.
Sata-chhi; sa-chhi .	Sa-chhi	. Khā fa-ngū	Ngā-kāi	13. Hundred.
Ji	. Ji	. Go	. Kā-tē	14. I.
Ji-gu; ji-mha	. Nu-gu	. Ka-su-sa	. Kā-ṭēk	15. Of me.
Ji-gu; ji-mha	Nu-gu	. Ka-su-sa	Kā-tēk	16. Mine.
Jhi-pi	Jā-ri	. Ka-yŭ	Dēninimi, or nā-te	17. We.
Jhi-gu	. Jā-ri-salā	. Ka-yŭ-sa		18. Of us.
Jhī-gu · · ·	Jā-ri-salā	. Ka-yū-sa		19. Our.
Chha	. Chhi	. Hó	Nā-gā	20. Thou.
Chhã-gu	. Chhà-gu	. Ā-do-sa; hó-sa.	. Nā-ṭak	21. Of thee.
Chhã-gu	. Chhã-gu	. A-do-sa; hó-sa		22. Thine.
Chhi	. Chhā-ri	. (Ā-yū)		23. You
Chhi-gu	. Chhā-ri-salā	. (A-yū-sa)		24. Of you.
Chhi-gu	. Chhā-ri-salā	. (Ā-yū-sa)		25. Your.

This list is incomplete. Only one bilingual Tōtō could be found. He knew a little Bengali, but his knowledge was so limited, that it was found im possible to make him understand the force of the various grammatical forms. No non-Tōtō knows the language.

H. G.—255

En	glish.			G	urang	(Nepal)		1	Ku rmi	(Nepal)		Sunwa	ir (Darjee	ling).	Mägar (Ne	pal).
26. He .	•		•	O-cha		•		The	•			Hare .	•	• .	. Ās-ko	•
27. Of him			•	O-cha-n	ıa-la	•		The-lā	•	•		Hare-k ng	ā de		. Ā-cheu, (ā-chü)	•
28. His .		•	•	O-cha-n	na-la	•		The-la				,			Ā-cheu	•
29. They .	•	•	٠	Kyā-ma	e	•		The-ni		•	•	Mur pati	•	•	. Āsruk	•
30. Of them	•	•	•	Kyā-ma	-laigā		•	. Then-nā	i .	•	•	Harek mu	r-ke .	•	. Asrukung .	•
31. Their	•	•	•	Kyā-ma	-lā-di	•		Then-na	i .	•	•	Mur pati-l	ke .	•	. Asrukung .	•
2. Hand	•	•	•	Yo	•	•	•	Yā			•	Gui .	•	•	Hut	•
3. Foot .	•	•	•	Bhali-pt	1	•	•	Kān-ph	a-lā	•	•	Khoili .	•	•	. Hil	•
4. Nose .	•	•	•	Na	•		•	Nã	•	•		Neh .	•		Nhā	•
5. Eye .	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	Mi			•	Mi-chi .	•	•	. Mik	•
6. Mouth	•	•	•	Sung	•	•	• .	Sung	•			Shoh .	•	•	. Nyer	•
7. Tooth	•	•	•	Sa	•	•	•	Swā	•	•		Khrui	•	•	Shyāk	•
8. Ear .	•	•	•	Nha	•	•	•	Nhã-bệ	•	•		Nophā .	•	•	. Na-kep	•
9. Hair .	•	•	•	Mui	•	•		Krā	•	•		Chang .	•	•	. Chhām	•
). Head .	•	•	•	Kra	•	•	• ,	Thobo	•	•	• •	Pīyā .	•	•	. Tālu	•
l. Tongue	•	•	•	Le	•	•	•	Le	•	•	• .	Le .	. •	•	, Let	•
2. Belly	•	•	•	Pho	•	•		Fho	•	•	• •	Kaz .	•	•	. Tuk	•
3. Back .	•	•	•	Gho	•	•	•	Chhigm	i .	•	• .	Nole .	•	•	. Mi-chārdi .	•
4. Iron .	•	•	•	Pae	•	•	•	Phāi	•	•	• .	Tampar .	•	•	Phalam	•
5. Gold .	•	•	•	Mhāra		•		Mār	•	•		Sun .	•	•	Gyū	•
6. Silver	•	•	• !	Chandi	•	•	• •	Mui	•	•		Chāndi .	•		Chándi	•
7. Father	•	•	•	Ā- ba	•	•	• •	Ābā	•	•		Popo .	•	•	Bai	•
3. Mother	•	٠	٠	Ā-mā	•	•	• •	Āmā	•			Ā-mā	•		. Mai	•
9. Brother	•	•		Ā-ghen (young	er) .	lder);		Jhyojhyo (younga	er).	elder) ;		Fhep .	•	• .	Bhai	٠
). Sister	•	•		A-ghaen (younge	(ə l er).	der);	ā-ngā	(younge	(elde er).	3r);	āngā	I	•	•	Bahini	٠
l. Mar	•	•		Mhi	•	•	• •	Mhi	•	•		Mur .	•	•	Bhar-mi	•
2. Woman	•	•	-	Chame	•	•	• •	Mring-ke	olā	•	•	Mishı mur	•		Māsto	•

Nēwā	rī (Nepal).	Pahrī (N	epal).		Róng (Darjeeling	;).	Ţōṭō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
0	•	•	. на	•	•	Hu			26. He.
O-yā-gu .	•	•	. Hwa-gu		•	Hu-sa		•••••	27. Of him.
O-yā-gu .	•	•	. Hwã-gu .	•	•	Hu-sa			28. His.
A-pĭ .	•	•	. Hõ-kari	•	•	На-уй		•••••	29. They.
Ami-gu .	•	•	Hő-kar a-g u .		-	Ha-yū-sa .		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	30. Of them.
Ami-gu .	•		Hő-kara-gu .	•	•	Ha-yū-sa .			31. Their.
Lāhā .	•		Lā		•	Ā-ká		Kui	32. Hand.
Cuti .	•	•	Li	•	•	Thung-lyók .		Wāibē	33. Foot.
Nhāsa .	•		Nhise	•		Tuk-nóm .	• .	Nāba	34. Nose.
Mikhā .	•		Migi	•	-	Ā-mik		Michui	35. Eye.
Mhutu .	•		To	•	•	A-bong		Nuigang	36. Mouth.
Vā .	•	• .	Wā	•		Ā-fo		Si	37. Tooth.
Nhāepã .	•	. •	Nisabne		-	Ā-nyor		Nānu	38. Ear.
šä .	•	•	Sõ	•	-	Ā -tsóm		Puring	39. Hair.
chhệ .	•		Chhe	•	•	Ā-thyāk	•	Pudāng	40. Head.
Ле .	•		Me	•		Ā-lí	• •	Lēbē	41. Tongue.
oātha .	•		Pari	•		Ta-bók	•	Pā'mā¹	42. Belly.
aṇḍhu .	•	•	Dhusā	•		Ta-gūm	•	Ju'mā	43. Back.
fa .	•		Nge	•	•	Pun-jeng .	• • ;	Chākā	44. Iron.
íu .	•		Lũ	•		Jer	• •	Sona	45. Gold.
)ha .	•		Oha	•	•	Kóm	•	Lupā	46. Silver.
Babā; abu	•		Bā	•	•	Ã-bo	• .	Āpā	47. Father.
Māma .	•		Mā		• 1	Ā-mū	!	$ ilde{\mathbf{A}}$ i δ ,	48. Mother.
)āju (elder)) ; kijā ((yo u nger)	Bhāju		• ;	Ā-num	• • •	Āpu (elder); ē' (younger).	49. Brother.
'atā (elder)	; kehe (younger]	Manjiu .	•	• ;	Ã-nóm	•	Ing	50. Sister.
Ianū •	•		Manchhi		-	Ma-ró		Duduri-bi(p vson),dev.	51. Man.
Misā .	•	• .	Māmā	•	•	Ta-'ayu		Mēm-bi	52. Woman.

Eı	nglish.			(Jurung	(Nep	al).			Murmi	(Neps	1).	_	Sunv	v år (D	arjeel	ing).		Mãga	ır (Nepa	al).
53. Wife	•	•	•	Miring	•	•			Mring	•	•	•	•	Mi-cha	•	•	٠	•	Māhazā .	•	•
54. Child	•	•	•	Kolo-m	8,0	•	•	•	Jha-tun	ıg.	•	•		Ā-ta	•	•	•		Zāzāko .		
55. Son .	•	•	•	Jha	•	•	•	•	Jhā	•	•	•		Tau		•	•	•	Lenzā .		
56. Daughter	•	•	•	Jha-me		•	•		Jhā-me	•	•	•	•	Ta-mi	•	•	•	•	Māsto mi-zā	i.	•
57. Slave	•	•	•	Ghe-ba	•	•	•	•	Kyāpā		•	•	•	Waili	•		•	•	Memās .		•
58. Cultivator	•	•	•	Kheti-la	a-bā	•	•			••	••••			Kisāne	•			•	Kheti-zāt-ki		
59. Shepherd	•	•	•	Chha-m	a e	•	•		Kiu got	halo	•	•	•	Gothālā	•	•		•	Luko-gothāl	ā.	
60. God .	٠	•	•	Prames	wera	•	•	•	Lā		•	•	•	Bhagwān		•	•		Bhagwān	•	•
51. Devil	•	•	•	Mho	•	•	•	•	Mang	•	•	•	•	Palla .	•	•	•		Bhūt .	•	•
52. Snn .	•	•	•	Dhinga	•	•	•	•	Dhini	•	•	•	•	Nā .		•	•		Surje; nyān	ıkhan	•
33. Moon .	•	•	•	Lani	•	•	•	•	Lâni	•	•		•	Lā-ṭosi .	•	•	•	•	Gehat .	•	•
34. Star .	•	•	•	Sārā; n	usara	•	•	•	Tārā	•	•	•	•	Sorru .	•	•	•	•	Tārā .	•	•
5. Fire .	•	•	•	Me	•	•	•	•	Ме	•	•	•	,	Mi .	•	•	•	-	Mhe .	•	•
6. Water	•	•	•	Kui	•	•	•	•	Kui	•	•	•	•	Māk .		•	•		Di .	•	•
7. House	•	•	٠	Dhĩ	•	•	•	•	Tim	•	•	•	•	Khi .	•	•	•	•	Im .		•
8. Horse	•	•	•	Та	•	•	•	•	Tā	•	•	•	• !	Shara .	•	•	•	•	Ghorā .	•	•
9. Cow	•	•		Mhe	•	•	•	•	Ме-уа	•	•	•	•	Bi .	•		•		Nhyet .	•	•
0. Dog ,	•	•		Naki	•	•	•	٠	Nāki	•	•	•	•	Kuchum	•		•		Chiu, (chü)		•
1. Cat .	•	•	•	Nawarā		•	•		Tāor	•	•	•	•	Berdu .	•		•		Suthu .		•
2. Cock .	•	•		Nagabhā	le	•	٠	!	Hwā-bā	•	•	•		Wo-a .	•		•		Gwā-bha-lyā		•
3. Duck	•	•		Hānsa	•	•	•	ļ		•	•	•		Pākhu-s hā l	oā.		•	. 1	Hāns .	•	•
. Ass .	•	•	1	Adhā	•	•	•	1		•	•	•		Gādhā .	•		•	-	Gadhā .	•	•
5. Camel	•	•		Ũţha	•	•	•		ữ th	•	•	•		Ut .	•		•	- 1	Jņțh .	•	
5. Bird . 7. Go .	•	•		Nemyā Hrād	•	•	•			•	•	•		Chiha .	•	•	•	.	∃wā-jā .	•	•
	•	•	,	Hyád Chadu	•	•	•			•	•	•		Lão .	•	•	•	. 1	Nung-ni	•	•
Eat •	•	•		71: 1			•			•	•	•		Jāo .	•	,	•	. ; J	yā-ni .	•	•
9. Sit .	•	•	•	Tidu	•	•	•	•	Chiu ,	•	•	•		Bāk .				. τ	I.n:		

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Ţōṭō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Kalā	Мајй	Ā-yu	Me'	53. Wife.
Machā	Cha-cha-ri	Ā-kup	•••••	54. Child.
Kãe	Kiā-pro	Ta-grí kup	Chãỡ; chãoâ	55. Son.
Mhyā-cha	Manjiữ	Ta-'ayu kup	Chāi-mē'	56. Daughter.
Cheo	Che	Vyet	No word	57. Slave.
Kisāni	Jesegu	Nyót-zūk-bū	Lingāng chaynā	58. Cultivator.
Phaijawā	Phijhuā	Luk-ngāk-bo	Ē'-nā	59. Shepherd.
Bhagbān	Dio	Rum	Īswal	60. God.
Bhūt; khyā	Bhu	Mung	Jishāng	61. Devil.
Sūrja deo; nibhā	Suja dio	Sa- <u>ts</u> uk	Chhāni	62. Sun.
Chandramā; tuyu mi-lā .	Nhiā dio	La-vo	Tāri	63. Moon.
Ngāgu	Nigi	Sa-hór	Puimā	64. Star.
Mi	Mi	Mi	Mēguē	65. Fire.
Lakhū	Lukhu	Ung	Ti	66. Water.
Chhē	Chhe	Lí	Sā	67. House.
Sala	Soro	On	Ãia	68. Horse.
Sā	Sā	Bik	Pikā	69. Cow.
Khi-chā	Kugu	Ка-jū	Kiā	70. Dog.
Bhau	Bhi	Ā-lyu	Ming-ki	71. Cat.
Gőga	Gongo	Hík-bu	Kēkā	72. Cock.
Hansa; hãe	Hui , ,	Dam-byó	Hangsā	73. Duck.
Gaḍhā	Gadha	Póng-bū	Pāngbn	74. Ass.
Ũṭh	Uth		Tāi-māng-gā , , .	75. Camel.
Jhanga	Jhangā	Fo	Pakhi	76. Bird.
н	õ	Nū	Chhāpur	77. Go.
Na	Ne	Zo	Châr	78. Eat.
Сьб	Ch8	Ngan	Iyun _{[3}	79. Sit.

English.		Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Neps	al).	Sunw är (Darje eling)	. Mãgar (Nepal).
80. Come .	•	Lago	• •	Khāu	• •	Piu	. Rā-ni
81. Beat .	•	Dhon		Robko; pungo		Tupo	. Dung-ni
82. Stand .		. Rāt		Rego		Ropo	. So-ni
83. Die	٠	. Sid		Siu		Beko	. Si-ni
84. Give .	•	Pin		Pingo		Ge·u; ge	Yā-ni
85. Run	•	Dheodha		Yarko		Doro	. Kher-ni
86. Up .	•	Tetar		Tor		Tārī	. Dhenam
87. Near .	•	Jhedho		Ngām-ri .		Oth	. Khereb
88. Down .	•	. Maemari	• •	Mār		Huige	. Mhākā
89. Far	•	Rhegõ		Tharing		Nguni	. Los
90. Before .	•	Nin-hundi .		Ghāchhā .		Nguingti	. Agher-lak
91. Behind	•	Li-hundi .	•	Lechhā		Nole	. Nhung-lak
92. Who	•	Khae-pa-châ .		Hālā		Sume	. Su
93. What .	•	. To		Tigā		Marme	. Hi
94. Why .	•	Ta-le	• •	Tisi		Mur-ne	. Hi-ki
95. And	•	. Ra		Ra		Āni	. Ra
96. But	•	Tara		Tārā	• •	Shyang	. Ta-ra
97. If	•	Bhisam		Bhi-sam (saying)	• •	Ngāna	. De-nàng
98. Yes		Ni-bā		Ninnā		Ang	. Но
99. No	•	Ā-ni-bā .		Āhin	• •	Ma-mai	. Mā-hā-le
100. Alas . 101. A father .	•	. Jā-ā		Jāa Ābā ki	• •	Rimsho	. Jāhāi
101. A father . 102. Of a father		. A-ba ghri . Â-ba ghri-a			• •	Kā popo	. Kat bai
102. Of a father	•	Ā-ba ghri-lādi	• •				. Kat bayo
103. To a lattler	•	. A-ba ghri-hundi		Ābā ki den	• •	Kā pap ba	. Kat bai-ki-nāng .
105. Two fathers	•	. Ā-ba nhi .		Āle		Dan mini	. Kat bai khātā .
106. Fathers .		Ā-ba-mae			•		Nis bai haru
LVV. Paulicis .	•	as our mace	•	Aba kade .	• •	Pop potchi	Bai haru

	Nēwā	i (Ne	pal).			 	Pahrī	(Nepa	al).		Róng (D	arjeel	ing).		Ţōṭō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Wã	•	•		•	•	Ya	•	•	•	•	. Di	•	•	•	Lēlē	. 80. Come.
Dā	•	•	,	•	•	Dāe	•	•	•	•	Būk .	•	•	•	Sāpu	. 81. Beat.
Dà	•	•			•	Dã	•	•	•		Lük-ding	•		•	Lōlō	. 82. Stand.
Si		•	•			Si	•	•			Māk .	•	•	•	Sipunā	. 83. Die.
Biu	•	•	•		•	Bi	•	•	•		Bi .	•	•	•	Pichā	. 84. Give.
Boã	•	•	•		•	Ke-ga w	ã	•	•		Dāng .	•	•		Tui	. 85. Run.
Choe	•	•	•		•	Thaso	•	•	•	•	Tā-bā .	•	•		Jujuntayē	. 86. Up.
Sațți	•	•	•		•	Sioti	•	•	•	•	Ā-thól .	•	•	•	Ābēṭō	87. Near.
Ko	•	•	•		•	Koso	•	•	•		Ā-mín .	•	•	•	Lijuing	. 88. Down.
Ţāpā	•	•			$\cdot \cdot $	Тара	•	•	•	•	Ā-rum .	•	•	•	Hindā-ninā	. 89. Far.
Nheone	; nhā	īpā	•		•	Nhorkhe		•	•	•	Nahān .	•	•	-	Döngångtå	. 90. Before,
Lione	•		•		•	Lumāne		•	•	•	Lon .	•	•	•	Nō	. 91. Behind.
Su	•	•	•		٠ ١	Selā	•	•	•	-	To-go .	•	•		Нā	. 92. Who.
Chhu	•	•	•	•	. (Chelā	•	•	•	-	Shū .	•	•		411.11	93. What.
Chhãe	•	٠	•	•	- (Chāe .	•	•	•		Sh ū-māt-nu n	•	•	• ;	Hā-rāng-gā	94. Why.
0	•	•	•	•	. (О,	•	•	•		Un .	•	•	•	*****	95. And.
Athe-nã	•	•	•	•	I	Mā-khi .	•	•	•	•	Shen .	•	•	•	*****	96. But.
Dhā-la-s	i	•	•	•	S	Siki .		•	•	•	Go-rung	•	•	•	•••••	97. If.
Kha-o	•	•	•			Khiu .		•	•		Âk .	ı	•]	Kē	98. Yes.
Ma-khu	•	•	•	•	7	Iā-khi .		•	•	•	Mā-ne	•	•	1	Ma-kōē	99. No.
Āhā	•	•	•			thā .		•	•	• .	Āhā	i	•	•	•••••	100. Alas.
Chha-mh			•			šā thi-sā				ĺ	Ā-bo kāt .				•	101. A father.
						ā thi-sā-g				• -	Ā-bo kāt-sa .		•	. Ā	Apak	102. Of a father.
						ā thi-sā-t			•		Ā-bo kāt-sa .		•	•	•••••	103. To a father.
Chha-mha			•	1		ā thi-sā le	onā,	•		İ	Ā-bo kāt-nun .		•	•	•••••	104. From a father.
Ni-mha b						isā bā				1	Ā-bo nyet .	•	•	Ā	pā-nisa	105. Two fathers.
Bau-pì .		•	•	• [\mathcal{B}	āsi.	•		• •	Ī	Ā-bo-song .	•	•		*****	106. Fathers.

	English.		Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwar (Darjeeling).	Mãgar (Nepal).
107.	Of fathers .	-	Ã-ba-mae-lā	Ābā kāde-lā	Pop potchi-kā	Bai kung
108.	To fathers .		Ā-ba-mae-lāi	Ābā kāde-dā	Pop potchi-kale	Bai haru-ki
109.	From fathers .	•	Ā-ba-mae-hundi	Åba kade-den	Pop potchi-ke	Bai-ko-dekhi, or, khātā .
110.	▲ daughter .		Chame ghri	Jhā-me ki	Tami kā	Kat masto mi-zā
111.	Of a daughter .		Chame ghri-ā	Jhā-me ki-lā	Tami kā-ke	Kat masto mi-zau
112.	To a daughter .	•	Chame ghri-lādi	Jhā-me ki-dā	Tami kā-kale	Kat masto mi-zā ki-nāng .
113.	From a daughter	•	Chame ghri-hundi	Jhā-me ki-den	Tami kā-ke	Kat masto mi-zā dekhi, or, khātā.
114.	Two daughters .		Chame nhi	Jhā-me ngi	Nishi tami-potchi	Nis masto mi-zā haru .
115.	Daughters .	•	Chame-mae	Jhā-me dugu	Tami potchi	Masto mi-zā haru
116.	Of daughters .	•	Chame-mae-lā	Jhā-me kāde-lā	Tami potehi-kā	Masto mi-zā haru-kung .
117.	To daughters .	•	Chame-mae-lādi	Jhā-me káde-dā	Tami potchi-ka-le	Masto mi-zā haru-ki.
118.	From daughters	•	Chame-mae-hundi	Jhā-me dugu-den	Tami potchi-ke	Masto mi-zā haru dekhi, or, khātā.
119.	A good man .	•	Mhi ghri saba	Jhyā-bā ki mhi	Mur kā rimsho	Kat niko bhar-mi
12 0.	Of a good man .	•	Mhi ghri saba-lā	Ki jhyā-bā mhi-lā	Kā mur rimsho-ke	Kat niko bhar-mi-kung .
121.	To a good man .	•	Mhi ghri saba-lā-di	Ki jhyā-bā mhi-dā	Kā rimsho mur-kale .	Kat niko bhar-mi-ki
122.	From a good man	•	Mhi saba ghri-hundi .	Ki jhyā-bā mhi-den	Kā rimsho mur-ke	Kat niko bhar-mi dekhi, or, khātā.
123.	Two good men .	١	Mhi saba nhi	Mhi ngi jhyā-bā	Nishi mur-potchi rimsho .	Nis niko bhar-mi
124.	Good men .	•	Mhi saba mae	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde	Rimsho mur-potchi	Niko bhar-mi haru
125.	Of good men .	•	Mhi saba mae-lā	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde-lā .	Rimsho mur-potchi-ke .	Niko bhar-mi haru kung .
126.	To good men .	,	Mhi saba mae-lādi	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde-dā .	Rimsho mur-potchi-kale	Niko bhar-mi baru-ki .
127.	From good men	•	Mhi saba mae-hundi	Mhi jhyā-bā kāde-den .	Rimsho mur-potchi-ngā .	Niko bhar-mi haru dekhi, or, khātā.
128.	A good woman .	•	Cha-me-ring saba ghri .	Mring-kolā jhyā-bā	Rimsho kā mishe	Kat niko māhazā bhar-mi .
129.	A bad boy .	•	Ā-saba puin jha-jha ghri .	Mhi jha-jha ā-jhyā-bā .	Kā to al ma-rimsho	Kat mā-jāti chhan-zā
130.	Good women .	٠	Saba cha-me-ring-mae	Mring-kol š kāde jhyā-bā .	Rimsho mish-potchi .	Niko māhazā bhar-mi haru
131.	A bad girl .	•	Ā-saba cha-me-ring jha-jha	Mring-kolā jha-jha ā-jhyā- bā.	Kā ma·rimsho misha al .	Kat mā-jāti bhauzā
132.	Good	•	Saba	Jhyà-bà	Rimsho	Jāti; niko
	Better		Saba	Jhyā-bā	Rimsho .	Gepcha

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Tötő (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Bau-pi-gu	Bā si-yā-gu	A-bo-song-sa		107. Of fathers.
Bau-pi-ta; bau-pi-yā-ta	Bā si-yā-tā	$ ilde{ ext{A-bo-song-sa}}$		108. To fathers.
Babā-pini-pāche	Bā si-yā lo-nā	Ā-bo-lyāng-nun .		109. From fathers.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha.	Manjiữ thi-sā	Tayu-kup kāt		110. A daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-yā .	Manjiữ thi-sā-gu	Tayu-kup-kāt-sa .		111. Of a daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-yā-ta .	Manjiũ thi-sā-tā	Tayu-kup-kāt-sa		112. To a daughter.
Chha-mha mhyā-cha-pāchē	Manjiũ thi-sā lo-nā	Tayu-kup-kāt-l y āng-nun		113. From a daughter.
Ni-mha mhyā-cha	Ni-sā manjiữ	Tayu-kup nyet		114. Two daughters.
Мһуа-сһа-рі	Manjiũ-si	Tayu-kup song		115. Daughters.
Mhyā-cha-pani-yā	Manjiũ-si-yā-gu	Tayu-kup-song-sa		116. Of daughters
Mhyā-cha-pì-ta	Manjiũ-si-yā-tā	Tayu-kup-song-sa		117. To daughters.
Mhyā-cha-pini-pāchē.	Manjiũ-si-yā lo-nā	Tayu-kup-lyāng-nun .		118. From daughters.
Chha-mha bhí manu.	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā .	Ma-ró ā-ryūm kāt		119. A good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu-yā .	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā-gu.	Ma-ró ā-ryūm kāt-sa .	•••··	120. Of a good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu-yā-ta.	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā-yā-tā	Ma-ró ā-ryūm kāt-sa .	•••••	121. To a good man.
Chha-mha bhi manu pāchē	Bhingu manchhi thi-sā lo-nā	Ma-ró ā-ryūm kāt-lyāng-nun		122. From a good man.
Ni-mha bhi manu	Ni-sā bhingu manchhi .	Ma-ró nyet ā-ryūm		123. Two good men.
Bhi manu-pi	Bhingu manchhi kāri .	Ma-ró ā-ryūm-song		124. Good men.
Bhi manu-pi-gu	Bhingu manchhi kāri-gu .	Ma-ró ā-ryūm-song-sa .		125. Of good men.
Bhi manu-pi-ta	Bhingu manchhi kāri-yā-tā	Ma-ró ā-ryūm-song-sa .		126. To good men.
Bhi manu pāchē	Bhingu manchhi kāri lo-nā	Ma-ró ā-ryūm-song-lyāng- nun.		127. From good men.
Bhí misā chha-mha	Bhingu māmā thi-sā.	Tayu â-ryūm kāt	· 	128. A good woman.
Chha-mha ma-bhì-mha kāe ma-chā.	Mā-ji bābā-cha thi-sā .	Ong ma-ryū-na-bo kāt		129. A bad boy.
Bhĩ-pĩ misā-ta	Bhingu māmā-to	Ã-ryūm tayu song		130. Good women.
Chha-mha ma-bhì-mha mhyāe ma-chā.	Mā-ji māmā-cha thi-sā	Tayu kāt ma-ryū-na-bo .		131. A bad girl.
Bhì	Bhingu	Ā-ryūm	Entānā	132. Good.
Ati bhì	Māji-gu bhingu	Ā-ryām		133. Better.

English.		Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwār (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepal).
134. Best .	•	. Saba	. Jhyā-bā jhyā-bā .	. Dāshyo	Bighna jāti
135. High .	•	Nuba	. No-bā	. Lāshyo	Ghyāncha
136. Higher .	•	Nuba	No-bā	. Khub lāshyo	Ghyāncha
137. Highest .	•	Nuba	No-bā no-bā	. Aghor läshyo	. Ghyāncha
138. A horse .	•	· Ta ghri	. Tā ki	. Sharā	. Kat ghorā
139. A mare .	•	Ta ma-ma ghri .	Tā māmā ki	. Sharā ã-mo	. Kat ghori
140. Horses .	•	· Ta-mae	. Tā kāte	. Sharā putchi	Ghorā haru
141. Mares .	•	. Ta ma-ma mae	. Tā māmā kāte .	. Sharā putchi ã-mo .	Ghorī haru
142. A bull .	•	Ba-sat lhyā ghri .	. Sārhe ki	. Biyaph-po-kā	. Kat sanryā phor
143. A cow .	•	Mhe ghri	. Me māmā ki	. Bi kā	Kat nhet
144. Bulls .	•	Ba-sat lhyā mae .	. Sārhe kāte	. Biyaph patchi	Phor haru
145. Cows .	•	Mhe mae	. Me māmā kāte .	. Biāng patchi	Nhet haru
146. A dog .	•	Na-ki dho ghri .	. Nāki ki	. Kuchum kā	. Kat chiu (i.e. chū) .
147. A bitch .	•	Na-ki ma-ma ghri	. Nāki māmā ki	. Kuchumi kā	. Kat chiu chauri
148. Dogs .	•	Na-ki jaga	. Nāki kāte	. Kuchum patchi .	Chiu haru
149. Bitches .	•	Na-ki ma-ma jaga .	Nāki māmā kāte .	. Kuchmi patchi	Chiu chauri haru
150. A he-goat.	•	Ra bokya ghri	Poke ki	. Chā-she kā	Kat bokā
151. A female goa	t .	Ra ma-ma ghri.	. Rā māmā ki	. Chā-she kā	Kat rhā
152. Goats .	•	Ra jaga	Rā kāte	. Chā-she patchi .	Rhā-haru
153. A male deer	•	. Fo dārhyā ghri	. Tāngi hvā-bā ki	. Kish-she ā-po	Darhyā mirga .
154. A female deer	r .	Fo murli ghri	. Tāngi māmā ki	. Kish-she ā-mo	Murli mirga
155. Deer .	t	. Fo	Tangi	. Kish-she putchi	Mirga
156. I am .	•	Nga mu	Ngā mu-lā	. Go-lā nang	Ngā le
57. Thou art .	•	Kin mu	Ye mu-lā	. Ge-lā bā-ngide	Nang le
158. He is .	•	. Chan mu	The mu-lā	. Hare bā-shotcha	Âsae le
59. We are .	•	. Ngi-jag mu	Ngā-ni kāte mu-lā .	. Go-patchi nang	Kān-ko le
160. You are .	•	Nha-me-jagan mu-lā .	Ye- nıkāte mu-lā	. Ge bā-sho chhuu	Nākruk le

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Ţōṭō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Dakale bhi	Dika bhingu	Ā-ryūm	••••	134. Best.
Tājā	, Tājā · · · ·	Thū	Hindā-ninā (see No. 89) .	135. High.
Upo tājā . •	. Māji-gu tājā	Ā-thū		136. Higher.
Dakale tājā	Dika tājā	Ā-thū ā-thū	•••••	137. Highest.
Chha-mha sala	. Soro thi-mā	On kāt		138. A horse.
Chha-mha mā sala .	. Soro māgu thi-mā	On ā-mót kāt		139. A mare.
Sala-ta	. Soro kāri	On-song		140. Horses.
Mā sala-ta	. Mãgu soro kāri	On-mót-song	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	141. Mares.
Doh chha-mha .	. Doh-sā thi-mā	Long kāt		142. A bull.
Sā chha-mha	. Mā-sā thi-mā	Bik-gū kāt		143. A cow.
Dohã-ta	. Doh-sā kāri	Long-song		144. Bulls.
Sā-ta	. Mā-sā kāri	Bik-gū-song		145. Cows.
Chha-mha khi-chā .	. Kuju thi-mā	Kajū kāt		146. A dog.
Chha-mha mā khi-chā	Mā kuju thi-mā	Kajū-mót kāt		147. A bitch.
Khi-chā-ta	. Kuju kāri	Kajā-song		148. Dogs.
Mā khi-chā-ta	. Mā kuju kāri	Kajū-mót-song .		149. Bitches.
Chha-mha dagu .	. Dugo thi-mā	Sa-ār-bu kāt		150. A he-goat.
Chha-mha chole .	Mā chalā thi•mā	Sa-ār-mót kāt		151. A female goat.
Dugu-chā-ta	. Chalā-tő	Sa-ār-song		152. Goats.
Bā chalā chha-mha	. Gũ-chalâ thi-mā	Sa-ka-bu kāt		153. A male deer.
Mā chalā chha-mha .	. Gũ-mā-chalā thi-mā	Sa-ka-mót kāt		154. A female decr.
Chalā	. Gũ-chalā	Sa•ka		155. Deer.
Jidu	. Ji khiu	Go gum	•••••	156. I am.
Chha du	. Chhi khiu	 Hó-a ,		157. Thou art.
O du	. Hố khiu	Hu gum		158. He is.
Ji-pi du	. Jā-ri khiu	Kayū gum		159. We are.
Chhi du	. Chhā-ri khiu	Hó-a		160. You are.

English.	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwār (Darjeeling).	Mägar (Nepal).
161. They are	Cha-jagan mu	The-ni kāte mu-lā	Me-ko-putchi bā-te-mā .	Hosruk le; asruk le
162. I was	Nga mu-lā	Ngã mu-bã	Go bā-sho nang	Ngā leyā
163. Thou wast	Kin mu	Ye mu-bā	Ge bā-sho thi	Nāng leyā-s
164. He was	Cha mu-lā	The-ni mu-bā	Mare bā-sho thiyo	Hos leyā; as leyā
165. We were	Cha-man (sic) mu-lā.	Ngā-ni kāte mu-bā	Go-patchi bā-sho naki .	Kān leyā
166. You were	Nha-me jagan mu-lā	Ye-ni kāte mu-bā	Ge-patchi bā-ni	Nākruk leyā
167. They were	Cha-me jagan mu-lā .	The-ni kāte mu-bā	Hari-patchi bā-ni-thiye .	Hosruk leyā
168. Be	Tage	Tā-bā	Nawe	Chhānni
169. To be	Ta-bi lasem	Tā-lā	Nawe	Chhān-ki
170. Being	Tae-nambu	Tā-si chi-bā	Dung-so-ngang	Chhammi-le
171. Having been	Tala khāmbā	Tā-lā jhinji	Thung-so-ngā	Chhān-mu hikā
172. I may be	Nga tab-mu	Ngā tā-ham-lā	Go dum-nang	Ngā chhān-ki hik-le .
173. I shall be	Nga tab-mu	Ngā tā-lā	Go ã-kale dum chai-nā .	Ngā chhān-me
174. I should be	Nga ta-la tum-mu	Ngā tā-bo-lā	Go ã dum-chai-nā	Ngā chhān-ki par-le
175. Beat	то	Rop-ko	Тири	Dāthuk-ni
176. To beat	Tőām	Rop-lā	Tup-cha .	Dāthuk-ki
177. Beating	Tõsi nambu	Rop-si chi-bā	Tum-na-tum	Dāthuk-nai-le
178. Having beaten	Tõsi	Rop-lā jin-ji ,	Tup-she-ngā-mi	Dāthuk-nu helā , .
179. I beat	Ngai tő-ām	Ngāi rop-lā	Go tup-nu	Ngā dāthuk-le
180. Thou beatest	Ki tõ-si na-bu	Ye-se rop-chi	Ge tup-ne	Nang dathuk-le
181. He beats	Chai tõ-si na-bu	The-se rop-pā	Mem tup-ba	Āchai dāthuk-le . ,
182. We beat	Ngi jaga tõ	Ngā-ni kāte rop-lā , .	Go-putchi tubia	Kān-e dāthuk-le
183. You beat	Nha-me jaga-di tõ . ,	Ye-ni kāte-se rop-chi .	Ge tupo	Nākur-e dāthuk-le
184. They beat	Cha-mae jaga-di tõ	The-ni kāte-se rop-pā .	Mem tup-ni-mi	Hos-ruk-e däthuk-le
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Ngā-ji hoā-ji	Ngai rop-chi		Ngei dāthuk-ā
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Ki-ji hoā-ji	Ye-se rop		Nang-e dāthuk-ā · .
	Chā-ji hoā-ji	The-se rop		

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahrī (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Ţōṭō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
A-pi du		Hő-ri khiu	Hu-yū-a		161. They are.
Ji du		Ji du	Gonyi	··· ·; ·	162. I was.
Chha du .		Chhi du	Но́ пуі	••••••	163. Thou wast.
O du		Hố du	Hu nyi	•••••	164. He was.
Ji-pi du		Jā-ri du	Kayū nyi	•••	165. We were.
Chhik-pi du .		Chhi-ri du	Hó nyi	•••••	166. You were.
A-pi du		Hő-ri du	Huyū nyi	••• ···	167. They were.
Ju-e		Khiu	Nyi-shong	•••••	168. Be.
Ju-e-ta		Khi-tā-ri	Ngûn-shong-kā	*****	169. To be.
Ju-yā chố .		Khi-ti-ni	Ngun-nun	•••••	170. Being.
Ju-e dhữ-gu .		Khi dhongu	Ngūn-lyāng-nun	******	171. Having been.
Ji ju-e phai .	• •	Ji khi phungi	Go ngũn-pũ		172. I may be.
Ji ju-e-tini; ji ju-e	•	Ji khi-tingi	Go ngun-shong	••••	173. I shall be.
Ji ju-e		Ji khi mā	Go ngữn-gắt		174. I should be.
Dā	• •	Dāe	Lyūp	•••	175. Beat.
Dā-e-ta	• •	Dāe-tā	Lyūp-shong	•••••	176. To beat.
Dā-yā cho-na .	• •	Dāe-tini	Lyūp-bâm		177. Beating.
Dā-e dhữ-ka .	• •	Dāe dho-ga-ri	Lyūp-nun	******	178. Having beaten.
Ji dā-e		Na dāi	Go lyūp	••••	179. I beat.
Chhà dā		Chha dāe	Hó lyūppung	*****	180. Thou beatest.
Õ dā-yā chona	•	Ho-na dā	Hu lyūp-bām	•••	181. He beats.
Ji-mi-sã dā-e .		Ja-ni dāe	Ka-yū lyūp	*****	182. We beat.
Dhhi-mi-sã dā .		Chhi-ri dāe	Hố lyũp	******	183. You beat.
A·mi-să dā-yā chona	•	Hő-ri dā	Hu-yū lyūp	•••••	184. They beat.
Jīdā-yā	• •	Na dā-rī	Go buk	*****	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Chhã dã-la .	•	Chha dā-nā	Hó bukkung	*****	186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
ð dá-la • •	•	Ho-na dà-rì	Hu buk		187. He beat (Past Tense).

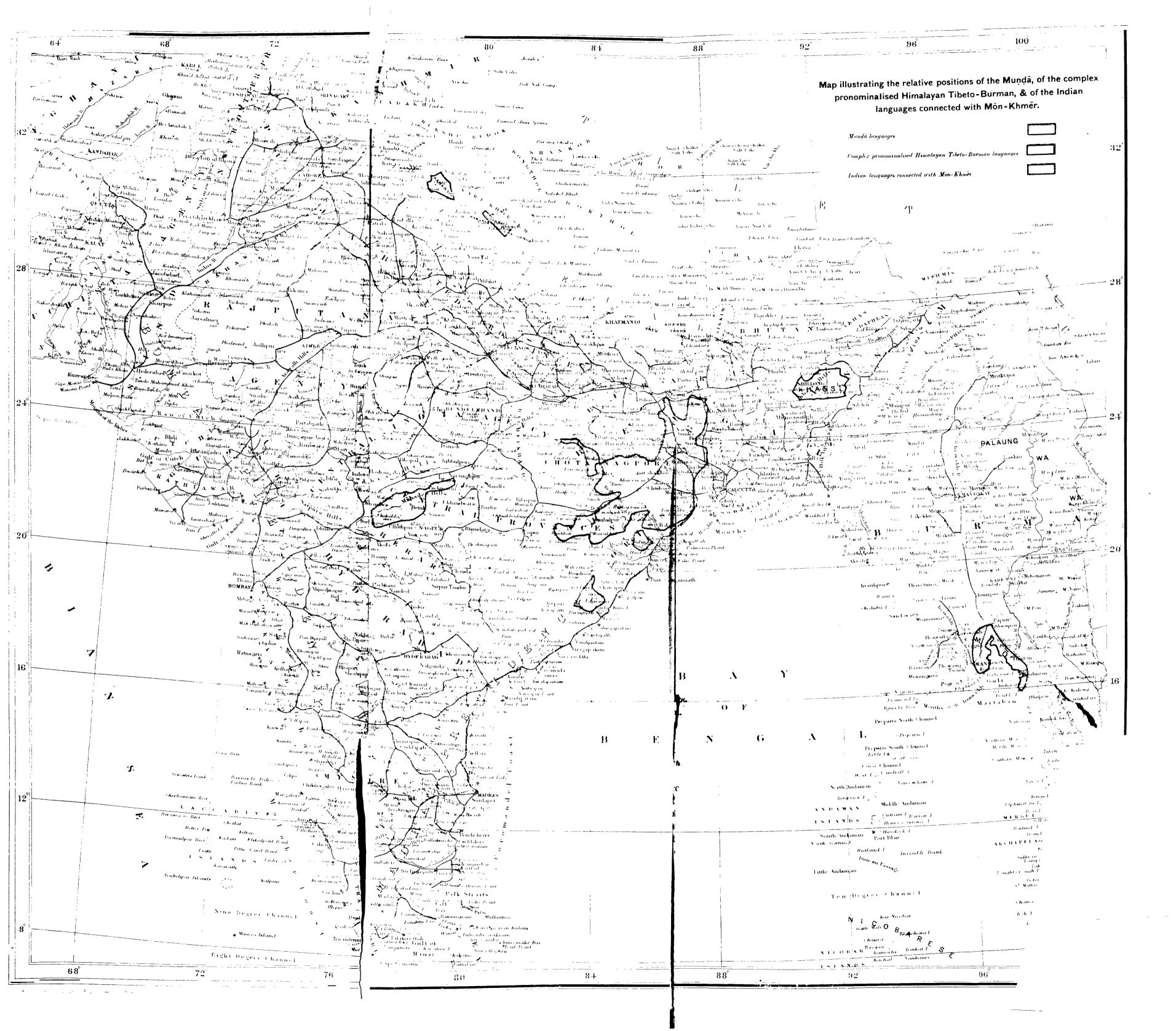
English.		Gurung (Nepal).		Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwār (Darjeeling).	Mãgar (Nepal).
188. We beat (Past Ten	ıse) .	Ngi-ji hoā-jı		Ngãchhi rop .		Kān-koi dāthuk-ā
189. You heat (Past Te	ense)	Nha-mae-ji hoā-ji .		Yenchhi rop		Nākoi dāthuk-ā
190. They beat (Past To	впѕв)	Cha-mae-ji hoā-ji .	•	Thenchhi rop , .		Āsurk-e dāthuk-ā
191. I am beating .	-	Nga tö-si na-bu .		Ngãe rop-si chi-bā .	. Go tum-na-tum pāhtā .	Ngãe dâthuk-nai-le
192. I was beating .	•	Nga-di tõ-si mu-lā .	•	Ngãe rop-si chi-bā mu-bã	. Go tum-na-tum bã-ti	Ngãe dāthuk-nai-leyā .
193. I had beaten .		Ngai tỗ-ā-lâ		Ngãe rop-si jinji .	. Go tum-ne-tum-tā	Ngãe dāthuk-ni hehani (sic)
194. I may beat .	•	Ngai to		Ngāe rop-lâ hām-lā .	. Go tup-nga-na	Ngãe dãthuk-ki hek-le .
195. I shall beat .	•	Ngai to-mu		Ngãe rop-lá		Ngãe dâthuk-le
196. Thou wilt beat .	•	Ki-ji hoā-ma	•	Ye-se rop-lā		Nang-e dāthuk-le
197. He will beat .	•	Chā-ji hoā-ma		The-se rop-lā		Āchai dāthuk-le
198. We shall beat .	•	Ngi-ji hoā-ma	•	Ngāchhi rop-lā .		Kānkoi dāthuk-le
199. You will beat .	•	Nha-mae-ji hoā-ma .	•	Yenchhi rop-lā .		Nākurk-e dāthuk-le
200. They will beat .		Cha-mae-ji hoā-ma .		Thechhi rop-lā .		Āsurk-e dāthuk-le
201. I should beat .		Ngai dhon-lā to-mu.	•	Ngae rop-to-lā	. Go ã-kale tup-chā mār-bā	Ngāe dāthuk-ke pari-cha
202. I am beaten .		Nga-lāi tõ-ādi .		Ngā-tā rop-ji	. Go tup-chā puing-sāi	. Ngā-ki dung-a
203. I was beaten .	•	Ngã tỗ-di .		Ngā-tā rop-si chi-ji .	. Go tup-chā puing-sāi thiyo	. Ngā-ki dung-nu dinhā .
204. I shall be beaten		Nga-lāi tõ-ā .		Ngā-tā rop-ka-lā .	. Go tup-chā puing-chā chhu	Ngā-ki dung-le
205. I go	. •	Nga hyām .		Ngā ni	. Go lāi-na	. Ngä nung-le
206. Thon goest	•	Kin hyām .		Ye nin	. Ge lāi-na-we	. Nang nung-le-s
207. He goes	•	Chan hyām .	• .	The ni-lā	. Me lāi-bā	. Āsai nung-le
208. We go		Ngi hyāma .		Ngā-ni ni-sai		Kānko nung-le .
209. You go		Nha-mae hyāma	• .	Ye-ni mu (sic)		Nākruk nung-le .
210. They go .		Cha-mae hyāma		The-ni mu (sic) .		Āsruk nung-le .
211. I went .	•	Nga hyā-lā .	(u	Ngā ni-ji	. Go la-ti	. Ngā nung-ne
212. Thou wentest		Ki hyā-lā .		Ye ni-ji	. Ge la-te	. Nång nung-ne-s
213. He went .	•	. Cha hyā-lā .		The ní-ji	. Me lā-pā	. Hosai nung-ne
214. We went .		Ngi hyā-ji .		Ngā-ni ni-ji		Kān-ko nung-ā

Nēwārī (Nepal).		Pahrī (Nepal).		Róng (Darjeeling).	Ţŏţŏ (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Ji-mi-sẽ dā-yā	. Ja	a-na dā-rǐ .	•	. Ka-yū buk .		*****	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Chhi-mi-se dā-la .	. Ch	hha-na dā -rĭ	•	. Hó buk		•••••	189. You beat (Past Tense)
A-mi-se dā-la	. н	o-kā-na dā -rĭ	•	. Ha-yū buk .		•••	190. They beat (Past Tense).
Jĭ dā-yā cho-nā .	· Na	a dā-nā cho ngi		Go buk-bām .		581000	191. I am beating.
Jĭ dā-yā cho-nāo cho-nā	·	a dā•nā ch õ .		Go buk-bām-bā	•	*****	192. I was beating.
Jĩ dã-e dhu-na .	· Na	a dāe dhung ā	•	Go buk-ang .	• •	*****	193. I had beaten.
Ji dā-e phai	· Na	a dâe phuu gi	•	Go buk-khu .	•	*****	194. I may beat.
Ji dā-e-tini	· Na	a dāe-tingi .	•	Go buk-shóng .	•	*** ***	195. I shall beat.
Chhà dā-i · ·	· Ch	hhà dā	•	Hó buk-shet .		******	196. Thou wilt beat.
Õ dā-i	·	o-na dā .	•	Hu buk-shet .		******	197. He will beat.
Ji-mi-se dā-e	· Ja	a-na dā .	•	Ka-yū buk-shóng	• •	*****	198. We shall beat.
Chhi-mi-sẽ dā-i .	Ċŀ	hha-na dā .	•	Hó buk-shet .		*****	199. You will beat.
A-mi-se dā-i	· H	o-kå-na dā .	•	Hayū buk-shet		*****	200. They will beat.
Ji dā-e mā	· Na	a dāe mā .		. Go buk-gāt .		1*****	201. I should beat.
Ji-ta dā-yā cho-na .	· Ji	idā-ri		. Ka-sum buk-ang		•••••	202. I am beaten.
Ji-ta dā-la · ·	· Ji	i dā-gu du .	•	. Ka-sum buk .		•••••	203. I was beaten.
Ji-ta dā-i-ti-ni	· Ji	i dā-tini .	•	Ka-sum buk-shet	• ,	*** **	204. I shall be beaten.
Ji o-ne	· Ji	i woe	•	Go nóng		*****	205. I go.
Chha hũ	· Cl	hhi wõ .	•	. Hó nóng	• .	*****	206. Thou goest.
O o-na · · ·	· H	lő wő		. Hu nón-det	• •	*****	207. He goes.
Ji-pi o-ne · ·	· Jā	á-ri letiữ .	•	. Ka-yā nóng .		107 144	208. We go.
Chhi-pì hũ · ·	· Ch	hhā-ri lāsõ .		. Hó nóng .		*****	209. You go.
A-pi o-ni	• H	o-kā-ri le tāri		. Ha-yū nóng .	• •	441 ***	210. They go.
Ji o-nā · ·	. Ji	i wāe-gu du .		Go nón	• •	******	211. I went.
Chha o-nā	· Cl	hhi wāe-gu du	•	Hó nóng-ngung		300 ***	212. Thou wentest.
O o-na · · ·	. H	lő wő-gu du .		Hu nón		\$81.444	213. He went.
Ji-pi o-na · ·	. Jā	ā-ri letiü .	•	. Ka-yū nóng		988.01	214. We went.

221. How old is this horse? Chu ta kati khip ta-di? Chu ta kati khepā ta-ji? Chu ta kati khepā ta-ji? Chu ta kati khepā ta-ji? Chu kyām Kashmir kāti thārma m-la? Chu-kyām Kashmir kāti thārma has kāti thārma m-la? Chu-kyām Kashmir kāti thārma has kāti thārma has kāti thārma has kāti thārma has kāti thārma prā-ji thār kāti thārma prā-ji thār kāti thār has kāti thār	English,	Gurung (Nepal).	Murmi (Nepal).	Sunwār (Darjeeling).	Mãgar (Nepal).
217. Go	215. You went	Nha-mae hyā-ji	Ye-ni ni-ji		Nākruk nung-ā
219. Gone	216. They went	Cha-mae hyā-ji	The-ni ni-ji	•••••	Āsruk nung-ā
219. Gone	217. Go	Hyād	Niu	Lāwā	Nung-ni
220. What is your name? . Ki mi to-cha? . Ye-lā min tikā? . I nō mār-me? . Nākung ārmin hi āle 221. How old is this horse? Chu ta kati khip ta-di? . Chu tā kāti khe-pā tā-ji? . Uhe mar? . Nākung ārmin hi āle 222. How far is it from hore to Kashmir? . Jhoile Kashmir kate rhegā Chu-kyām Kashmir kāti there in your fathers horse? . Nh-me ā-bā dhon-rī kati har namar sona sae sae horse in your fathers horse no your fathers horse no horse	218. Going	Hyār-bā	Ni-si ni-bā	La-chā	Nung-nai-le
221. How old is this borse? Chu ta kati khip ta-di? Chu ta kati khepā tā-ji? Chu ta kati khepā tā-ji ta kāti ha kā ha kā haba ha haba ha haba ha haba haba haba	219. Gone	Hyāl-khã-di	Ni-lā jinji	La-tā	Nung-nu hekā
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir kate rhegin nu? 223. How many sons are three in your father's house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day. 225. The son of my uncle is marvied to his sister. 226. In the house is the saddle upon his back. 227. Put the saddle upon his back. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the thor the top of the hill. 230. He is sitting on a hore under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupers and a half. 233. My father lives in that small hoose. 234. Give this rupee to him shads. 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him. 237. Praw water from the with propen. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be him well and bind him with ropes. 230. Whose boy comes be him well and bind of him with ropes. 230. Whose boy comes be him well and bind of him with ropes. 231. His my beat of the hill. 232. The price of that is two rupes; and a half. 233. Wy father lives in that small hoose. 234. Give this rupee to him well and bind him with ropes. 235. Take those rupees from him him sister. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 231. His problem is a the rupe in the fall of the hill. 232. The price of that is two rupes; and a half. 233. Wy father lives in that small hoose. 234. Give this rupee to him ba-is in the rupe; and half. 235. Take those rupees from him with ropes. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 230. Whose boy comes be hind you? 231. His price of that is two rupes from him him you have hind you have h	220. What is your name? .	Ki mi to-cha?	Ye-lā min tikā?	I në mar-me?	Nākung ārmin hi āle? .
223. How many sons are thore in your fathers house? 224. I have walked a long May to-day. 225. The son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may include the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of the son of my uncle is may a consider the son of the	221. How old is this horse?	Chu ta kati khip ta-di? .	Chu tā kāti khe-pā tā-ji? .	Iko sharā dushya burshā bā-me?	Isai ghorā kurik bhurhā chbān-ā?
there in your father's house' 224. I have walked a long way to-day. 225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister. 226. In the house is the sand die of the white horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the hill. 230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. Walk before me Ngae in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him with ropes. 237. Paw water from the will. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada Ngae halfa khas-ba jha khashing water first than him with ropes. 239. Whose boy comes behind you? 230. Whose boy comes behind water from the will. 230. Whose boy comes behind you? 231. His horder me nothed white horse. 232. The price of that is two rupees from the will. 233. Whose boy comes behind you? 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from the will. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada Ngae hila khashing hila him him with ropes. 239. Whose boy comes behind you? 230. Whose boy comes behind you? 231. His horder is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees from bhim. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from bhim bhanda . 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada . 239. Whose boy comes behind you? 230. The saddle upon the hill. 231. Hin the house has habded a long him him with ropes. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him him with ropes. 236. Beat him well and bind him bhanda . 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada . 239. Whose boy comes behind him him yell and him him with you? 239. W				Ake-ngā Kashmir dushong ngoni chha?	Itai Kashmir kurik los le?
224. I have walked a long way to-day. 225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister. 226. In the house is the sadded of the white horse and due of the white horse has a die of the white horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 230. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 231. His brother is taller than its sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind. Cha-lai beate dhou fair with ropes. 237. Draw water from the will. 238. Walk before me Nga kini thàring pra-ji Appe-kauchhā a-tau-ke haid anga di ha ha-la anga dakte chas. Achime ngoshtike lae-pao . Mu-lāti dushyo lang gāpti . Nga kanchhā hay-o l mi-lā anga dum hā-la kā-mishya nu dum tha hain-lai hain hiha chamishya nu dum tha hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hanga den-chhyām bihā al-pasibay and dum tha hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai hain-lai hain-lai hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai hain-lai hain-lai kāthi mu-lā hain-lai k	there in your father's		Ye-lā āp-lā dim-ri jhā kāde mu-lā ?		Nang-u bay-o im-āng kurik lenzā mizā le ?
married to his sister. 226. In the house is the saddel of the white horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him him. 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Take those rupees from him. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind and bind him with ropes. 230. Whose boy comes behind and bind him with ropes. 230. Whose boy comes behind and bind him with ropes. 231. Whose boy comes behind and bind defends the saddle upon his back. 232. Whose boy comes behind and bind do for the white horse. 233. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse. 234. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse. 235. Take those rupees from well. 236. Walk before me 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse. 239. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse. 230. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse it targe at the wind and thim with ropes. 239. Whose boy comes behind a land bind do for the white horse it targe at the wind a land bind a l	224. I have walked a long	Nga tingnyā rhegũ bhradi .	Ngā tini thāring prā-ji .	Mu-lâti dushyo lāng gāpti .	Ngā chini dherai los hoā .
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind for than his sin the fair of the hind for	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.		ā-ngā den-chhyām bihā	biha ā-lo mishya nu dum-	Ngau kanchhā bay-o len-zā mi-zā āchiu bahini-khātā
thängo. 228. I have beaten his son with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Take those rupees from him. 238. Walk before me 239. Walk before me 230. Wose boy comes behinda in son with many stripes. 231. The number of the hill. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind of the first of the hill. 230. Whose boy comes behind of the price of that is two rupees and a half. 231. The number of the mill. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind of the price of the sing of the train in the price of the price of the sit true of the will. 239. Whose boy comes behind of the price of the sit of the true of the mill. 239. Whose boy comes behind of the price of the hill. 230. The la fight is the lâ ângà cisi no-bã mu-lã. 231. The tong dhi-ri tà ki-ri the chih-sã init hat ki-ri the chi-bã angà cisi no-bã mu-lã. 232. The price of that is two rupes and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind on the sistend of the land of the chi-bã angà ri tau-kale daria. 239. Whose boy comes behind of the nu-la dia ria dihuidu that it ki-r	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.			Khi-mi bushye sharā ā-	Im bhitri bocho ghorā kāthi
with many stripes. 229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill. 230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him him. 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada Ngae nin bhrada Ngae his dhon-di. Pra-ri tă-ji ra-me mahi chhâ-si hi-bā. Pra-ri tă-ji ra-me mahi hayu dângră tări meshbi ngoshyà bâ-tă. Hayu meko răwă-pongmi sheră tări-mi băshyo bâ-tă. Hosai thumka tâki ôsane. Hosai thumka tâki ôsane. Hosai thumka tâki ôsane. Hosai thumka tâki osane. Hocheo his ra dhili le. Ngai bâ dim jha-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā. Ngai bâ dim jha-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā. Eko bi-ti meko-kale giu hosai lani. Hocheo hol nis ra dhili le. Ngai bâ dim jha-jha-ri chi	227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Cha-e gho-ri kathi thin .		Āchime ngoshtike lāe-pao .	Hochio pith-tāki kāthi kā-ni
the top of the hill. Skeedo chha-sem. Cha sendu jara-ri ta pheri tisim mu-là. Cha sendu jara-ri ta pheri tisim mu-là. Cha-mae ring bhandà chamae ā-lì nu-ba mu-là. Cha-mae ring bhandà chamae ā-lì nu-ba mu-là. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. Cha-e sae mhui nhi semonar ghri. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupees adhuli rupees adhuli rupees adhuli rupees and a half. The-là sāi sikā ni-se adhuli rupees adhuli rupe	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Cha-e jha-lādi nga-di lhe lana dhon-di.	The-lā jha-tā āngi rop-chi .		
tisim mu-lå. 231. His brother is taller than his sister. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him him. 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind de him with ropes. 230. Whose boy comes behind de him with ropes. 231. His brother is taller tisim mu-lå. 232. Cha-mae ring bhandā chame ā-lū nu-ba mu-lā. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind risim mu-lå. 230. Cha-mae ring bhandā chame ā-lū nu-ba mu-lā. 231. The lâ āle the-lā āngā oisi no-bā mu-lā. 232. The price of that is two rupees and a half. 234. Give this rupee to him 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me 239. Whose boy comes behind risin mu-lā. 240. Cha-hai beshe dhon chluba-si krudu. 250. Take those rupees from him him with ropes. 251. Take those rupees from him him with ropes. 252. The price of that is two rupe a hounda lāshyo chha. 253. My father lives in that small roba dim jua-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā. 254. Draw water from the well. 255. Take those rupees from him. 266. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 267. Draw water from the well. 268. Walk before me 279. Ngae a hin brada 270. Ngae a hin brada 270. Ngāe lā the-lā āngā oisi no-bā mu-lā. 270. The-lâ sāi sikā ni-se adhuli mab hea dim jua-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā. 270. The this rupee to him ba hain jua		He nu-ba thum-ri cha-di kheodo chha-sem.	Pra-ri tā-ji ra-me mahi chhā-si chi-bā.		Hosai thumka tāki bastu õsane.
than his sister. mae ā-lī nu-ba mu-lā. no-bā mu-lā. no-bā mu-lā. bhundā lāshyo chha. bahini denaug ghyām adhili en bahili en bahini denaug ghyām adhili en bahili en b			The tong dhi-ri tā ki-ri the chi-bā mu-lā.	Hayu meko rāwā-pongmi sherā tāri-mi bāshyo bā-tā.	Hosai murtung mhāke hosai ghorā tāki kal-nu omine.
rupees and a half. 233. My father lives in that small house. 234. Give this rupee to him Chu mhui cha-lāi pin . Chu tāngā the-tā pingo . Eko bi-ti meko-kale giu . Isai rupiyā hosko-ki y. 235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me . Ngae nin bhrada Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu . A-maiti gāko Ngau aghi hoā-ni . 239. Whose boy comes behind you? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khasim? 238. Walk before me . Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khasim? Chu tāngā the kyam-se kingo . Eko bi-ti meko-kale giu . Isai rupiyā hosko-ki y. Chu tāngā the kyam-se kingo Me-ko-le rimso-pa tup min (?) meko-kale ghele-me rimso-wa preng-do. Pokhri-ngā pāko chhyolo . Inār in di don-ni A-maiti gāko Ngau aghi hoā-ni . Su-o chhan-zā nā nhung-lāk ram-ne?			The-lā āle the-lā āngā oisi no-bā mu-lā.		Hocheo bhāyai hocheo bahini denang ghyāncha le.
chi-bā mu-lā. 234. Give this rupee to him Chu mhui cha-lāi pin Chu tāngā the-tā pingo Chu tāngā the kyam-se kingo. Cha-huin-le mhui jaga kin him. Cha-lāi beshe dhon chhu-ba-si krudu. The-tā māri ropko. chho-se khigo. The-tā māri ropko. chho-se khigo. Tun-di-se kui tego Ngae nin bhrada Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu A-maiti gāko Ngau aghi hoā-ni Su-o chhan-zā nā nhung-lāk ram-ne?	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.		The-lā sāi sikā ni-se adhuli		Hocheo mol nis rupiyā adhili le.
235. Take those rupees from him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada			Ngā ābā dim jha-jha-ri chi-bā mu-lā.		Ngau bai hosai mārchhu im-ang ũ-le.
him. 236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes. 237. Draw water from the well. 238. Walk before me Ngae nin bhrada	234. Give this rupee to him	Chu mhui cha-lāi pin .	Chu tāngā the-tā pingo .	Eko bi-ti meko-kale giu .	Isai rupiyā hosko-ki yanhi .
him with ropes. ba-si krudu. khigo. (?) meko-kale ghele-me rimso-wa preng-do. Pokhri-ngā pāko chhyolo . Inār huinle kui dhuidu . Well. Ngae nin bhrada Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu . Ā-maiti gāko Ngau aghi hoā-ni . Whose boy comes behind you? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khaha sim? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khaha sim? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khaha haji.		Cha-huin-le mhui jaga kin	Uchu tāngā the kyam-se kingo.	Meko bi-putchi nelle pito .	Hos rupiyā hosai khātā lāni.
237. Draw water from the well. Pokhri-ngā pāko chhyolo . Inārin di don-ni . Ngae nin bhrada Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu . Ā-maiti gāko Ngau aghi hoā-ni . 239. Whose boy comes behind you? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha khaha sim? Ve-lā lisang hāl-lā jhatung haji. I-nole su-kā ā-tau pime? . Su-o chhan-zā nā nhung-lāk ram-ne?			The-tā māri ropko. chho-se khigo.	(?) meko-kale ghele-me	Hosai bes-khātā dāthu-ne doria chhyāk-ni.
239. Whose boy comes behind you? Ki-lidi khae-ba jha kha- Ye-lā lisang hāl-lā jhatung haji. Ye-lā lisang hāl-lā jhatung haji. Su-o chhan-zā nā nhung-lāk ram-ne?		Inār huinle kui dhuidu .	Tun-di-se kui tego	rīmso-wa preng-do. Pokhri-ngā pāko chhyolo .	Inārin di don-ni
hind you? sim? haji. Su-0 chian-za na nhung-lāk ram-ne?	238. Walk before me	Ngae nin bhrada	Ngā-lā ngāchhā prāu .	Ā-maiti gāko	Ngau aghi hoā-ni
			Ye-lā lisang hāl-lā jhatung haji.	I-nole su-kā ā-tau pime? .	Su-o chhan-zā nākung nhung-lāk ram-ne?
240. From whom did you Ki-di cha khaeb de ghlu-di? Ye-se chu hāl-lā kyām-se Meko ge suke-ngā gyābi? . Su-khātā hosai loā?.		Ki-di oha khaeb de ghlu-di?	Ye-se chu hāl-lā kyām-se khu-bā.	Meko ge suke-ngā gyābi? .	
241. From a shopkeeper of the village. Nā sarba-e pasalyā ghri-de Nāmsā-lā pāsale-chā . Gāun-ngā dokāne-ke-ngā Lāhāng kat pasale-khā gyaptā.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Nā sarba-e pasalyā ghri-de ghlu-di.	Nāmsā-lā pāsale-chā	Gāun-ngā dokāne-ke-ngā gyaptā.	Lāhāng kat pasale-khātā .

Nēwārī (Nepal).	Pahri (Nepal).	Róng (Darjeeling).	Ţōţō (Jalpaiguri).	English.
Chhi-pì o-na	Chhā-ri lārõ	Ho nóng	******	215. You went.
A-pi o-na	Ho-kā-ri lāữ	Ha-yū nóng	*****	216. They went.
на	wa	Nū	******	217. Go.
O-nā cho-nā	Wő-tini	Nón-det	•••••	218. Going.
O-ne dhữ-ka-la	Wő-gu	Nón	*****	219. Gone.
Chhã nã chhu?	Chha nau chalā?	Ã-do-sa ā-bryāng shū gó?.	····••	220. What is your name?
Tho sala guli buddhā ju-la?	U soro gwālā jejő?	On ā-re sa-tet gān-bo gó?.	*** ***	221. How old is this horse?
Tha-nã Kasmir guli-ta tāpā?	U-thā-nā Kashmir gwālā tāpā?	Ā-bā-nun Kāshmîr sa-tet ru-ung gó ?	*** ***	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Chhã babā-yā chhế go-mha kā-e-pĩ du ?	Chhĩ bãe chhe gu-sã-lū kiã-pro du ?	Ā-kup sa-tet nyí ā-do-sa ā-bo lí-kā?		223. How many sons are there in your father's
	Thra tāpā-ka wõe lā-ni .	Sa-rong go ā-rum-nunl6m- bā di.	·····	house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ji-mha kakā-yā kāe-yā-ke o-yā kehẽ bihā ju-yā	Nu dā-yā kiā-pro-yā hõ-yā manjiu nāpa bihā jă.	Ka-su ā-kū-sa ā-kup hu-do ā-nóm deb-kā brí-thík.	a** · · ·	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
chona. Tuyu-mha sala-yā kāṭhi chhẽ du.	Chhe-go tuiraj soro-yā-gu kathi du.	Lí-kā on ā-dūm-sa gó nyi .	**. ***	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
O-yā jandhu-li kāṭhi ti .	Hõ-yā mhã-ga kathi tā .	Hado ta-gūm-kā gó kyóp .	111.000	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Ji o-yā kāe-yā-ta tako masi dā-e dhu-na.	Hõ-yā kiā-pro-yā-ta na choho dā-ni.	Go hu-do kup ā-li mól-la lyūp.	*****	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
O parbata-yā chokā-sa sāme ja-yā cho-na.	Kakarā cho-ga hỗ sāhã- bāhã jhā.	Hu-nun thân-chung pong- kāng-kā lóng zót-bām.	*****	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
O simā-yā ko-sã chha-mha sala-sa chonāc chona.	Chho simā purko soro thi- mā hỗ chỗ.	Hu kung pe-re ā-min on plong-kā ngān nyí.	*****	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
O-yā kijā o-yā kehe-yā sisā ta-dhi ka.	Hõ-yā manji-ā sika hõ-yā bhāju tājā.	Hado yeng hado nóm-len rhen.	******	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
O-yā mu ni takā tyā kha .	Wo-yā mữ nis takā o bā takā.	O-re-sa ā-fār kóm nyet sa phet.	******	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ji babā o chiki-dhā-gu chhē chonā chona.	Wo chikhā-gu chhe nu bā chõ.	Ka-su bo pe-re lí ā-chum- bo-kā ngān-bām.	******	233. My father lives in that small house.
Tho takā o-yā-ta biu •	Tho tākā hő-yā-tā bi	Kóm ā-re ha-dom bi . .	••••	234. Give this supee to him.
O takā o-li-se kā	Hő-thā-nā wo takā kāe .	Kóm o-re-song hu-do- lyāng-nun lyó-a.		235. Take those rupees from him.
O-yā-ta nhyā dǎ-ka dā-yā khipa-tǎ chiu.	Hő-yā-tā niakka dāe pākhi- na chi.	Ryū-la ha-dom buk-nun tākpo-sa dām-tho.		236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Tũ-thi-sa la sā . •	Tukhu lukhu sāli	Ūng-lāp-nun ũng rhyā .		237. Draw water from the well.
Ji nheone nyā-si-nu	Nu-yā sika nghoā go .	Ka-su nahān nā		238. Walk before me.
Chhã lione so-yā kāe machā o-yā cho-na?	Chhả lumane sala baba-chả yu?	To kup ā-do lon di-det gó?		239. Whose boy comes be-
O chhả gumhasyā-ke nyā-nā?	Wo chhả sã-thã-lã niã-nã kã-nã?	Hó o-re to-lyāng pār-rung gó?		240. From whom did you buy that?
Gã-yā chha-mha pasalyā yākē.	Desa-yā-gu pasaja thi-sā- nā-la-gā.	Kyūng pasol-mo-lyāng-nun pār.		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.





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COMPLEX PRONOMINALIZED LANGUAGES.

EASTERN SUB-GROUP.

To the east of the valley of Nepal we find a series of dialects of a much more complex nature than those described in the preceding pages. All the characteristics mentioned in the introduction to the Himalayan languages are found in them, though not always in one and the same dialect.

The tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of pronominal affixes is found in all of them. Thus a suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is commonly added in the first person singular. The regular place of this suffix is between the base and the auxiliary. Compare Thāmi hok- $ng\bar{a}$ -du, being-I-am, I am.

It has already been remarked that this distinction of the person of the subject by means of pronominal suffixes is in agreement with the practice of Muṇḍā languages. It is interesting to note in this connexion that those forms of speech likewise insert the pronominal suffix indicating the subject between the real verb and the auxiliary. Compare Santālī rāngāch'-ed-in tahākana, hungering-I-was, I was hungering. Moreover, the use of personal suffixes is not necessary in either group. In the Muṇḍā languages it is more common to add the pronominal suffix to the word immediately preceding the verb. Compare Santālī áṇak'-te-ñ chalak'a, house-into-I go, I shall go home. We can perhaps compare the tendency in some of the dialects now under consideration to distinguish the subject by means of pronominal prefixes before the verb. Compare Limbu khene ke-wā, thou thou-art, thou art. It should however be borne in mind that the use of prefixes is an old feature of Tibeto-Burman languages.

Another characteristic feature of the Muṇḍā verb is that the direct and indirect objects are incorporated in it by inserting pronominal infixes. Compare Santālī sim-da okarā-y-ām ñam-ket'-ko-tiñ-a, hens where-thou foundest-them-mine? where did you find my hens? A similar tendency can be observed in some dialects of our group. Compare Khambu khodo-pikā, him-said, he said to him; Limbu pī-r-ang-nē, give me; hip-tam-me, beat him.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties in Dhīmāl, Yākhā, and Khambu. Thāmī and some Khambu dialects have adopted the Aryan numerals for higher numbers, and Rāi and Limbu make use of the Tibeto-Burman method of counting in tens. Compare Yākhā hi-bong-hichchi nga ibong, twenties-two and ten, fifty, and Santālī bar isi gäl, two twenties ten, fifty.

The personal pronouns of Muṇḍā languages have three numbers. There are, moreover, double sets of the dual and plural of the first person. Compare Santālī iñ, I; aliñ, I and he; alañ, I and thou; alä. I and they; abo, I and you. The Tibeto-Burman languages have no such complicated system of pronouns. The numerous forms found in them are due to the exigencies of etiquette, different forms being required in order to mark the differing degree of politeness shown towards the person addressed. Several Himalayan dialects, however, in this respect agree with the Muṇḍā forms of speech.

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Many of them are only known through the materials published by Hodgson. Compare Vāyu go, I; ang-chi, my and his; ung-chi, my and thy; ang-ki, my and their; ung-ki, my and your; Bāhing go, I; gō-si, I and thou; gō-sūkū, I and he; gōi, I and you; gō-kū, I and they, and similar forms in other dialects such as Thāksya, Rūngchhēnbūng, Nāchherēng, Wāling, Thūlung, Lōhōrōng, Lāmbichhōng, Bālāli, Sāngpāng, Dūmi, Khāling, Dungmāli, etc. Some of the dialects which fall within the scope of this Survey probably possess a similar system of pronominal forms. Our materials are not sufficient to judge about the matter with certainty. Compare however Limbu ān-chī, I and thou; ān-chī-gē, I and he; ānī, I and you; ānī-gē, I and they. In Khambu we find kei, we; i-mi, our; o-khi-pi, of us. Compare Bāhing gōi, I and you; i-ke, my and your; wa-ke, my and their, and so forth.

Hodgson has collected most of the complex pronominalized languages of Nepal under the head of Kirāntī, and it has become customary to distinguish those dialects as the Kirāntī group of Tibeto-Burman languages.

According to the same authority, the Kirānt country in the larger sense is subdivided into three different tracts, viz.:—

- 1. Wallo Kirānt or Hither Kirānt, inhabited by Yākhās, Limbus, Lōhōrōngs, and Chhingtangs.
- 2. Mājh Kirānt or Middle Kirānt, comprising Bontāwa, Rōdong, Dungmāli, Khāling, Dūmi, Sāngpāng, Bālāli, Lāmbichhong, Bāhing, Thūlung, Kūlung, Wàling, and Nāchherēng.
- 3. Pallo Kirānt or further Kirānt, inhabited by the Chourasyas.

Hodgson further states that Kirānt in this larger sense comprises the country of the Khambus, or Khambuwān, and the country of the Limbus, or Limbuwān. The former is situated between the Sun Kosi and the Arun, the latter between the Arun and the Singilela Range. The Yākhās and the Limbus are, however, he says, often alleged to be not Kirāntis. Mr. Gait, on the other hand, states that he has been informed by an educated Yākhā, that strictly speaking Kirāntī is the designation only of the Rāis, i.e., of the Jimdārs and the Yākhās. The name Kirānt should properly be written Kirāt. It has long ago been identified with the Kirātas of Sanskrit literature. It is not, however, of any importance to speculate on the history of the word. Suffice it to state that it is used in different senses by different authorities, and that the dialects of the so-called Kirāntī group are closely related to dialects spoken by tribes who have never claimed to be Kirānts. I do not, therefore, see any sufficient reason for retaining the denomination Kirāntī in this Survey.

The dialects belonging to our group which will be dealt with in what follows are Dhīmāl, Thāmi, Limbu, Yākhā, Khambu, and Rāi. Some other Nepalese dialects such as Vāyu, Chēpāng, etc., will be added as a kind of appendix.

Dhīmāl and Thāmi are comparatively simple languages. The higher numbers in Dhīmāl are counted in twenties; compare nā bīsa, five twenties, hundred.

The person of the subject is distinguished by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $l\bar{e}$ - $\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, I come-shall-I, I shall come; $n\bar{a}$ $l\bar{e}$ - $\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{a}$, thou come-wilt-thou, thou wilt come; $ky\bar{e}l$ $l\bar{e}$ - $\bar{a}ng$ - $ky\bar{e}l$, we come-shall-we, we shall come. In other respects Dhimāl does not show any traces of the complicity characteristic of other dialects belonging to the group.

Dhīmāl has formerly been considered to belong to the Bodo group of Tibeto-Burman languages. Its vocabulary, and more especially the forms of the numerals and pronouns, however, show a much closer affinity to the Himalayan dialects, and the negative verb is formed by means of a prefix $m\bar{a}$. When we remember the characteristic features drawn attention to above, it cannot therefore be any doubt that Dhīmāl must be separated from the Bodo group and dealt with in counexion with the pronominalized dialects of Nepal.

So far as we can judge from the scanty materials at our disposal, Thāmi is a dialect of the same description as Dhīmāl. The numerals above 'two' have been borrowed from Aryan languages, and we cannot therefore tell whether the higher numbers were originally counted in tens or in twenties. The conjugation of verbs, on the other hand, shows the same use of pronominal suffixes as in the case of Dhīmāl; thus, gai yā-ngā-du, I go-I-am, I go; ne rehu-nā-du, thee-by striking-thou-art, thou strikest.

Limbu is a dialect of a much more complex character. The higher numbers are, however, counted in tens as in Tibetan.

It has already been remarked that there are double forms of the dual and the plural of the first personal pronoun, $viz.:-un-ch\bar{\imath}$, I and thou; $un-ch\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, I and he; $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$, I and you; $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, I and they. Of greater interest is, however, the use of short forms of the personal pronouns as prefixes; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}$, I my-son, my son; $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-n\bar{u}-s\bar{a}$, thou thy-younger-brother, thy younger brother; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}-s\bar{a}$, he his-son, his son. These prefixes are extensively used, and they also occur before verbs, in order to distinguish the person of the subject and the object. Thus, $\bar{a}-k'-hip$, me thou strikest; $p\bar{a}p$ $g\bar{a}-chogu$, sin I-did, I sinned; $kh\bar{u}n-chh\bar{\iota}$ $m\bar{e}-w\bar{a}$, they they-are, they are.

In this extensive use of pronominal prefixes Limbu agrees with Bârâ, and still more with the Kuki-Chin languages. Compare Bârâ āng-ni ā-fā, me-of my-father, my father; nang-ni nam-fā, thee-of thy-father, thy father; bī-ni bī-fā, him-of his-father, his father; Lushēi kei-ma ka-pa, I my-father, my father; kei-ma ka-ni, I my-being, I am. In this connexion we can also note that the plural suffix in the pronouns 'I' and 'thou' is ni in Limbu and in Lushēi.

It will, accordingly, be seen that Limbu forms another link in the chain connecting Tibetan and the Himalayan dialects with the Tibeto-Burman languages of Assam and Burma.

It is not only pronominal prefixes that are employed by Limbu. When the subject of a verb is of the first person, it is often indicated by suffixing ang, an abbreviated form of the pronoun $ang\bar{a}$, I. Thus, $p\bar{e}g$ -ang, went-I, I went. This ang must be compared with the suffix $ng\bar{a}$ in Thāmi. It is also used to indicate the object; thus, hip-t- $\bar{a}ng$, he struck me; $p\bar{i}$ -r-ang- $n\bar{e}$, give me.

Yākhā is in many respects closely related to Limbu, as will already be apparent from a comparison of the numerals and pronouns in the list of words on pp. 408 and ff. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. The dialect possesses a set of pronominal prefixes. It does not, however, so commonly add them before a governing noun in order to repeat the governed genitive, as does Limbu, though we find forms such as u- $g\bar{a}$ i- $p\bar{a}$, him-of his-father, his father. The verb does not regularly differ for person. The suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is, however, sometimes inserted between the base and an auxiliary, when the subject is of the first person singular; thus, khem-me- $ng\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, going-1-am, I go, and it is

probable that better materials would show that Yākhā in reality agrees much more closely with Limbu than the tests available lead us to infer.

Khambu is the name of a tribe whose members speak several closely connected dialects. The higher numbers were formerly counted in twenties, but Aryan loan-words have now begun to be substituted. Several Khambu dialects possess dual forms of the personal pronouns and double sets of the dual and plural of the first person, one including and the other excluding the person addressed. The personal pronouns have short forms which are used as pronominal prefixes, as in Limbu and Yākhā.

Some Khambu dialects make use of pronominal suffixes in order to distinguish the person of the subject in verbs. There is also a tendency to add pronouns before the verb in order to indicate the object; thus, $khodo\text{-}pik\bar{a}$, him-said, he said to him.

Some Khambu dialects present a very complicated system of verbal forms, and it is just possible that further materials would show the same to be the case with all, or at least, most of them.

Specimens have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey of a dialect called Rāi. It is probably the language spoken by the Jimdārs of Nepal. It closely corresponds to Hodgson's Dūmi.

Higher numbers are counted in tens.

According to Hodgson's Dāmi vocabulary, the personal pronouns have a dual as well as a plural, and there are both inclusive and exclusive forms of the dual and plural of the first person. Short forms of the personal pronouns are used as pronominal prefixes. The prefix \bar{a} , thy, is also used before verbs in order to indicate that the subject is of the second person; thus, \bar{a} -mu, madest. Compare Limbu.

The person of the subject is not regularly distinguished in the verb. In addition to the prefix \bar{a} in the second person we sometimes find a suffix nga in the first; thus, $mu-nga-t\bar{a}$, I am doing.

The remaining dialects of the group are only known from the materials published by Hodgson. The Vāyu dialect is a typical language of the complex type, and it will be described at some length. Other Nepalese languages, such as Bhrāmu, Chēpāng, Kusūnda, and Thāksya, are too unsatisfactorily known to be dealt with in detail. They have all been much influenced by Aryan tongues.

It will be seen that the dialects belonging to this group all have the tendency to distinguish the person of the subject, at least if the subject is of the first person. In that case a suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is usually added or inserted between the base and an auxiliary. In Dhīmāl and Thāmi we find a similar suffix $n\bar{a}$ in the second person. These two suffixes, $ng\bar{a}$ for the first and $n\bar{a}$ for the second person, will meet us again in the western group. Their origin is evident; they are simply the shortest forms of the personal pronouns of the two first persons.

In Limbu, Yākhā, Khambu, and Rāi we find an extensive use made of pronominal prefixes, just as is the case in several Tibeto-Burman dialects of Assam and Further India.

The position of our group can accordingly be defined as intermediate between Tibetan and the non-pronominalized Himalayan dialects on one side and the pronominalized languages of North Almora, Kanawar and neighbourhood as well as a series of Tibeto-Burman forms of speech such as Bârà, the Kuki-Chin languages, etc., on the other.

DHĪMĀL.

The Dhīmāl dialect is spoken by a small tribe in the Darjeeling Terai. No estimates of the number of speakers have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. At the last Census of 1901 the figures were as follows:—

A full vocabulary and a grammatical sketch of the dialect have been published by Hodgson. No new materials have been forthcoming for the purposes of this Survey, and the remarks on Dhīmāl which follow are therefore entirely based on the materials collected by Hodgson. The same is the case with the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 408 and ff.

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Article.—There is no article. The numeral e, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by means of demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is indicated by using different words or by prefixing dānkhā, dhāngāi, male; mahani, bhundi, female, etc. Thus, kē, husband; bē, wife: wā-val, man; bē-val, woman: wā-jan, boy; bē-jan, girl: dānkhā khīā, male dog; mahani khāā, bitch: dhāngāi kia, cock; bhūndi kia, hen.

Number.—The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is *galai*; thus, *chan galai*, children.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by any suffix. The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix dong. The dative, which is sometimes also used as an accusative, is formed by adding ēng. The suffix of the ablative, which is also often used to denote the agent, is sho; that of the genitive ko, and that of the locative $t\bar{a}$. Thus, $\bar{\imath}dong\ m\bar{a}$ - $\bar{\imath}elk\bar{a}\ w\bar{a}$ -jan-galai-sho ghinteng weng, $\bar{u}dong\ \bar{\imath}elk\bar{a}\ b\bar{e}$ -jan-galai- $\bar{\imath}eng\ p\bar{\imath}$, these not good boys-from take it, those good girls-to give; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ -dong $ch\bar{a}$ -nen-chā-h\bar{\imath}, tiger-by killed, a tiger killed him; $\bar{\imath}dong\ king$ -ko $d\bar{\imath}a$, this (is) our buffalo; $bada\ s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, in a big house.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede, but sometimes also follow the noun they qualify; thus, ēlkā chan-galai, good children.

The particle of comparison is $nh\bar{a}$ -dong, which is usually preceded by the compared noun in the genitive. Thus, \bar{o} - $k\bar{o}$ $nh\bar{a}$ -dong $dh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, him than tall, taller; sogiming-ko

 $nh\bar{a}$ -dong $dh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, all than tall, tallest; $p\bar{\imath}a$ $nh\bar{a}$ -dong $\tilde{o}yh\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}ndi$ hi, cow than horse fat is, the horse is fatter than the cow. Dong can be dropped; thus, sogining $nh\bar{a}$ $it\bar{a}$ kalam rhinka, all than this pen long, this pen is the longest of all.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the noun they qualify. They are often followed by the suffix long, which does not appear to add anything to the meaning; thus, \tilde{e} -long $d\tilde{\iota}\tilde{a}ng$ or e- $d\tilde{\iota}\tilde{a}ng$, one man.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

 $k\bar{a}$, I. $|\cdot| n\bar{a}$, thou. $w\bar{a}$, he. $k\bar{a}ng$ -dong, by me. wang-dong, by him. nang-dong, by thee. kėng, to me. $n\bar{e}ng$, to thee. wēng, to him. $k\bar{a}ng$ -ko, my. nang-ko, thy. \bar{o} - $k\bar{o}$, $w\bar{a}n$ -ko, his. $ky\bar{e}l$, we. nyēl, you. \bar{u} -bal, they. king-dong, by us. ning-dong, by you. \bar{u} -bal-dong, by them. king-ēng, to us. ning-eng, to you. \bar{u} -bal- \bar{e} ng, to them. king-ko, our. ning-ko, your. \bar{u} -bal-ko, their.

The demonstrative pronouns are $\bar{\imath}$, this; \bar{u} , that. There are besides fuller forms, viz., $\bar{\imath}$ -dong, and \bar{u} -dong for living beings, and $\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$, \bar{u} - $t\bar{a}$, for things. The demonstrative pronouns are inflected like personal pronouns; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ -ko, or $y\bar{a}ng$ -ko, of this; $y\bar{e}ng$, to this; $y\bar{a}ng$ -ko, from this. The plural is $\bar{\imath}$ -bal, these; \bar{u} -bal, those.

Interrogative pronouns are hāshū, who? hai, what?

Verbs.—All verbs are inflected in exactly the same way. If the subject is of the first or second person, the personal pronouns are suffixed to the tense bases. Thus, $k\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi-k\bar{a}$, I go; $n\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi-n\bar{a}$, thou goest; $w\bar{a}\ had\bar{e}-khi$, he goes; $ky\bar{e}l\ had\bar{e}-khi-ky\bar{e}l$, we go; $ny\bar{e}l\ had\bar{e}-khi-ny\bar{e}l$, you go; $\bar{u}-bal\ had\bar{e}-khi$, they go.

The usual verb substantive is jeng-li, to be. The present is $j\bar{e}hi$, the past $hig\bar{a}-hi$, the future $j\bar{e}ng$, first person $k\bar{a}j\bar{e}n-k\bar{a}$, I shall be.

Hi means 'to be,' 'to exist'; thus, $h\bar{a}sh\bar{u}$ hi, who is there? $k\bar{a}$ hi- $k\bar{a}$, I am; $b\bar{e}$ -jan $nh\bar{a}$ -dong $v\bar{a}$ -jan $dh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ hi, girl than boy tall is, the boy is taller than the girl.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present; thus, nāni mhoikā-dinchā-tā hadē-kā, to-day jungle-to go-I, to-day I am going to the jungle.

The usual present tense is formed by suffixing khi, mhi, or nhi; thus, $k\bar{a}$ had \bar{e} -khi- $k\bar{a}$, I go; $k\bar{a}$ d $\bar{o}p$ -mhi- $k\bar{a}$, I speak.

A present definite can be formed by prefixing $\bar{e}l\bar{a}ng$, now, to this tense; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $\bar{e}l\bar{a}ng$ $kh\bar{a}ng$ -khi- $k\bar{a}$, I am wishing.

Past time.—The suffix of the past is hi; thus, $n\bar{a}$ had \bar{e} -hi- $n\bar{a}$, thou wentest. We also find shorter forms such as $n\bar{a}$ hai- $n\bar{a}$, thou wentest; $m\bar{a}$ hai- $k\bar{a}$, I did not go.

An imperfect is formed by prefixing $l\bar{a}mp\bar{a}ng$, formerly, to the present; thus, $k\bar{a} l\bar{a}mp\bar{a}ng kh\bar{a}ng-khi-k\bar{a}$, I was wishing.

Future.—The suffix of the future is $\bar{a}ng$, which sometimes becomes $\bar{a}n$ before the suffix $k\bar{a}$ of the first person. The initial \bar{a} is sometimes dropped after vowels. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ chāng-ka, instead of chā-āng-kā, I shall eat; $k\bar{a}$ hadē-āng-kā, or kā hān-kā, I shall go; $n\bar{a}$ hadē-āng-nā, or, $n\bar{a}$ hāng-nā, thou wilt go.

Imperative.—The simple base without any suffix is used as an imperative; thus, $ch\ddot{a}$ eat; $m\ddot{a}$ $l\dot{e}$, don't come.

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Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding li; thus, $had\bar{e}$ -li, to go, in order to go. Another verbal noun is formed by adding $k\bar{a}$; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ - $kon\bar{a}ng$, on account of doing, because he did. Such forms are commonly used as relative participles; thus, $d\bar{a}ng$ -hai- $n\bar{e}n$ - $ch\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{\imath}a$, beating-finding-eating dog, a beaten dog; $d\bar{o}p$ - $k\bar{a}$ $koth\bar{a}$, spoken words.

An adverbial participle is formed by adding katāng; thus, lēn-ka-tāng lēn-ka-tāng hadē-khi, he goes laughing.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding teng; thus, hade-teng, having gone.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. A kind of passive can however be expressed by adding the verbs $n\bar{e}n$, to find, and $ch\bar{a}$, to eat, to the base and conjugating throughout; thus, $yolla-sho\ dang-hai\ n\bar{e}n^2ch\bar{a}-hi-k\bar{a}$, brother-from beating found-ate-I, I was beaten by my brother.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{a}ng$ -khi- $k\bar{a}$, I do not wish; $k\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}n$ - $k\bar{a}$, I am not going; $m\bar{a}$ $hod\bar{e}$, don't go.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the works quoted above under the head of authorities and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 408 and ff. The latter has been compiled from Hodgson's grammar and vocabulary.

THÂMI.

The Thāmis have formerly been considered to speak the same dialect as the Sunwārs. During the preparatory operations of this Survey the two dialects were confounded in Darjeeling, and separate returns were only made from Sikkim. The number of speakers in that district was estimated at 100. At the last Census of 1901, Sunwār and Thāmi were classed together in Assam. The Thāmi figures for other districts were as follows:—

BENGAL PRESIDENCY											
Jalpaiguri								•		9	
$\operatorname{Darjeeling}$					•					264	
$\operatorname{Chittagong}$				•	•			•		6	
Sikkim .	•		•	•				•		32	
Bombay Presidency										 Bengal	311 8
Bombat Palotz Engl	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	GRAND	Тот	AL	 319

It will be seen that the number of speakers outside Nepal is small. It is therefore no wonder that it has been impossible to get more than an incomplete list of words for the purposes of this Survey. The list is not sufficient for giving a detailed description of the principal features of Thāmi grammar. It shows, however, that Thāmi is quite distinct from Sunwār. It is much influenced by Aryan dialects, and has adopted Aryan numerals above 'two.' On the whole, however, it seems to be a dialect of the same kind as Dhīmāl, Yākhā, Limbu, etc.

The remarks on the Thami dialect which follow are entirely based on the list mentioned above, which has been forwarded from Darjeeling.

Nouns.—The prefixes chi in chi- $ng\bar{a}$, nose; chi-le, tongue; $ch\bar{a}$ in $ch\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, moon; \bar{u} in \bar{u} -go, mouth; u- $m\bar{a}$, wife; \bar{u} -ni, sun, do not appear to add anything to the meaning. The prefix $ch\bar{a}$ in $ch\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ corresponds to the z in Tibetan zla-ma, moon. Similarly chi-le, tongue, should be compared with Tibetan lche, Sharpa che-lak.

Gender.—The male gender can be indicated by adding qualifying words such as $p\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, boke, $d\bar{a}rhe$, etc.; thus, $p\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ $sy\bar{a}$, bull; boke churi, a he goat; $d\bar{a}rhe$ $\bar{a}rki$, a male deer. $P\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ should be compared with Pahrī $b\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ which is used in the same way. The female gender can, similarly, be distinguished by adding $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$, or mi; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ $sy\bar{a}$, cow; $kuchu-m\bar{a}$ and kuchu-mi, bitch. In other cases the gender is distinguished by using different words, or else it is left unmarked.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural can be distinguished by adding suffixes such as haru and $p\bar{a}li$; thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ haru, fathers; $ch\bar{a}mai$ $p\bar{a}li$, daughters.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The object can, however, be put in the dative, which is formed by adding one of the suffixes kai or $l\bar{a}i$; thus, to-ko $ch\bar{a}$ -kai rehunu, his son beat, I have beaten his son.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental. It is formed by adding i or e; thus, $dh\bar{a}$ -i $sy\bar{a}$ - $mish\bar{a}$ jahu-du, himby cows-buffaloes grazes, he is grazing cattle; to-kai $sh\bar{a}k$ -pa-e chhiho, him ropes-with bind.

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An ablative is formed by adding dekhin or ining, ini; thus, dokane dekhin, from a shopkeeper; $k\bar{a}$ '-ining, here-from; kuta-ini, from whom?

The suffix of the genitive is ko; compare Sunwar $k\bar{a}$, and the suffix gu which forms relative participles in Newari and Pahri; thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ -ko $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ -ko nim-te, thy father's house-in.

The suffix of the locative and terminative is te; thus, nim-te, in the house; $lukush\bar{a}$ -te, upon his back. This suffix is also contained in postpositions such as pole-te, under; $h\bar{a}bi$ -te, before; libi-te, behind.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify; thus, u-bha $ghor\bar{a}$, the white horse; $\bar{a}pr\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}mai$ - $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}li$, good women. The particle of comparison is the Aryan $bhand\bar{a}$ as in Gurung, Yākhā, etq; thus, $dh\bar{a}$ -ko $b\bar{u}b\bar{u}$ to-ko humi $bhand\bar{a}$ aglo hoddu, his brother his sister than tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

```
gai, I.
                    n\tilde{a}, thou.
                                                   dhā, he.
ge, by me.
                    ne, nai, nāya, by thee.
                                                   dh\bar{a}-i, by him.
gai-ko, my.
                    n\bar{a}n-ko, thy.
                                                   dh\bar{a}-ko, his.
ai-mi, ni, we.
                    nāng, ningwai, you.
                                                   dhā-bang, dhā-mā-pāli, they.
ni, by us.
                    nai, by you.
                                                   dh\bar{a}-bang-e, by them.
mi-ko, our.
                    nāng-ko, your.
                                                   ta-bang-ko, their.
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Ta-bang-ko, their, is perhaps the genitive plural of the demonstrative pronoun to, that. It seems however probable that dh and t are interchangeable as in other connected forms of speech. Moreover, the handwriting of the original list is so indistinct that it is often impossible to distinguish between o and a. The plural forms of the second person properly belong to the singular.

Demonstrative pronouns are $k\bar{a}$, this; u, and to, that.

Interrogative pronouns are su, who? $h\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, what? $h\bar{a}$ -ni, how much? how many? Kuta-(ini), whom (-from), is probably Aryan.

Verbs.—The verb substantive is apparently du; compare Nēwārī and Pahrī. $Gai\ hok-ng\bar{a}-du$, I am, seems to mean 'I sitting am.' The forms $th\bar{a}$, is; thiyo, was, are probably Aryan.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive plays a considerable rôle in the inflexion of finite verbs. There is apparently a strong tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by inserting pronominal suffixes between the base and the verb substantive, as is also the case in other Nepalese languages. In the first person singular a $ng\bar{a}$ is inserted; thus, $hok-ng\bar{a}-du$, I am; $hok-ng\bar{a}-thiyo$, I was. In $n\bar{a}$ $hok-ng\bar{a}-du$, thou art, $ng\bar{a}$ is perhaps miswritten for $n\bar{a}$; compare $n\bar{a}$ $hok-n\bar{a}-du-thiyo$, thou wast. In $y\bar{a}-ng-ng\bar{a}ng$, I went, ng is used instead of $ng\bar{a}$.

The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is often used in a similar way in the second person; thus, ne rehu-nā-du, thou strikest. This suffix is, however, also used in the first person; thus, gai hok-na-du, I shall be; gai thā-ng-nā-du, I may be.

In the plural we find i in the first, and ni in the second and third persons; thus, $ni \ hok - i - du$, we are; $ningwai \ hod - ni - du$ thiyo, you were; $to - b\bar{a}ngai \ hod - ni - du$ thiyo, they were.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a present tense; thus, $th\bar{a}$, is; nai rehi, you strike. Usually, however, the copula du is added; thus, hod-du, he is, they are; $y\bar{a}$ -du, he goes; $r\bar{a}$ -du, he comes; rehu-du, he strikes, they strike. The suffixes mentioned above can be inserted before this du; thus, $y\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -du, I go; rehu- $n\bar{a}$ -du, thou strikest; $n\bar{a}ng$ hot- $n\bar{a}$ -du, you are; ni hok-i-du, we are.

In the first person we also find a suffix nu; thus, ge rehu-nu, I strike. It is abbreviated to n before du; thus, ge rehu-n-du, I am striking.

In the second person we find a suffix $l\bar{a}$ added to duk, the fuller form of the copula du; thus, $n\bar{a}ng y\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-duk-l\bar{a}$, thou goest.

Re- $s\bar{a}$ in *ni re*- $s\bar{a}$, we strike, is an ordinary verbal noun; see below.

Past time.—The various forms used in the function of finite tenses are properly verbal nouns. The literal meaning of gai hok-ngā-du, I am, is 'my sitting-my-being.' Such forms can of course occasionally also be used in the past; thus, ge rehu-nu, I have beaten; ge rehu-n-du, I had beaten. A real past can be formed by adding thiyo, was; thus, gai hok-ngā-thiyo, my sitting-my-was, I was; to-bāngai hod-ni-du-thiyo, they were.

Another suffix of the past is $ng\bar{a}ng$; thus, $gai\ y\bar{a}ng-ng\bar{a}ng$, I went; $n\bar{a}ng\ y\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}ng$, thou wentest; $gai-kai\ re-ng\bar{a}ng$, me-to struck, I am struck.

A suffix $h\bar{a}n$ occurs in $th\bar{a}-h\bar{a}n$, was; $y\bar{a}-h\bar{a}n$, went; and $m\bar{a}ng$ is used in $n\bar{a}ya$ kinai- $m\bar{a}ng$, thou boughtest.

Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, $ge \ reu-nu$, I shall beat. The suffix $n\bar{a}$ in $gai \ th\bar{a}ng-n\bar{a}-du$, I may be; $gai \ hok-n\bar{a}-du$, I shall be, is probably the suffix of a participle or verbal noun.

Imperative.—The imperative is apparently formed by adding one of the suffixes \bar{a} , $k\bar{a}$, $g\bar{a}$; ho, ko; thus, $y\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , go; $chiy\bar{a}$, eat; ho- $k\bar{a}$, sit; thiu- $g\bar{a}$, stand; re-ho, beat; chhi-ho, bind; pi-ho, give. The initial k and g of some of these suffixes perhaps belongs to the base.

Piyang, give, probably contains the pronominal suffix of the first person and means 'give me.'

Verbal nouns and participles.—A verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $s\bar{a}$; thus, $th\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$, to be; gai-kai re- $s\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}hi$ -du, me-to beating due-is, I shall be beaten.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding $mu-n\bar{a}$; thus, $re-mu-n\bar{a}$, to strike. It contains the suffix $n\bar{a}$ which is used with the meaning of a participle or verbal noun in $rehu-n\bar{a}$, beating.

The suffix $s\bar{a}$ is probably identical with $chh\bar{a}$ in $yen\text{-}chh\bar{a}$, going. Compare Sunwār $chh\bar{a}$, Purik $ch\bar{a}$, etc.

Conjunctive participles are apparently formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ -le or to-le; thus, $th\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -le, being; jetlong- $t\bar{a}$ -le, having been; reko-dum-to-le, having beaten.

Negative Particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -th \bar{a} , notis, no.

For further details the student is referred to the list of words on pp. 408 and ff. It should be borne in mind that the value of the preceding remarks entirely depends on the correctness of the various forms contained in the list.

LIMBU.

The Limbus are one of the principal tribes of Eastern Nepal. Their home is to the east of the Yākhās, and to the south-east of the Khambus. They rank next to the Khambus and above the Yākhās.

The Limbus call themselves Yāk-thūng-bā, and according to Major Senior¹ they state that they and the Rāis were once one people. Their history is stated to be written in a book called *Bhongsoli*, i.e., Vamśāvali, of which copies are kept in some of the most ancient families. Such copies, when found by the Gurkhas, are always burnt, and the keeping of them is strictly forbidden.

According to Sir Herbert Risley—

'The name Limbu, or Das Limbu, from the ten sub-tribes (really thirteen) into which they are supposed to be divided, is used only by outsiders. Tibetans have no special name for the Limbus; they call all the tribes of the Indian side of the Himalaya by the general name Monpa or dwellers in the ravines. The Lepchas and Bhotias or Tibetans settled in Bhotan, Sikkim, and Nepal speak of the Limbus as Tsong, because the five thums or sub-tribes included in the class known as Lhasa-gotra emigrated to Eastern Nepal from the district of Tsang in Tibet. Lepchas call them Chang, which may be a corruption of Tsong. By other members of the Kiránti group they are addressed by the honorific title of Subah or Suffah, a chief.

The Limbus, according to Dr. Campbell, "form a large portion of the inhabitants in the mountainous country lying between the Dud-Kosi and the Kanki rivers in Nepal, and are found in smaller numbers east-wards to the Mechi river, which forms the boundary of Nepal and Sikkim. In still fewer numbers they exist within the Sikkim territory, as far east as the Tista river, beyond which they rarely settle. In Bhutan they are unknown except as strangers." Hodgson locates them between the Arun Kosi and the Mechi, the Singilela ridge being their boundary on the east. The Limbus themselves claim to have held from time immemorial the Támba Khola valley on the upper waters of the Támba Kosi river: and the fact that one of their sub-tribes bears the name Támbakhola suggests that this valley may have been one of their early settlements. They have also a tradition that five out of their thirteen sub-tribes came from Lhasa, while five others came from Benares. The former group is called the Lhasa-gotra, and the latter the Kási-gotra; but the term gotra has in this case no bearing on marriage. All that can safely be said is that the Limbus are the oldest recorded population of the country between the Támra Kosi and the Mechi, and their flat features, slightly oblique eyes, yellow complexion, and beardlessness may perhaps afford grounds for believing them to be the descendants of early Tibetan settlers in Nepal. They appear to have mixed little with the Hindus, but much with the Lepchas, who of late years have migrated in large numbers from Sikkim to the west.'

We have no information about the number of speakers of Limbu in Nepal. Their number of speakers.

Number of speakers.

Number of speakers.

Darjeeling and Sikkim has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey as follows:—

			-				•					
•	•	•	•	•			•	•	•	•	•	14,045
•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	•	10,000
									Тота	L	•	24,045
										• • • • • • • • • • •	Total	Total .

At the last Census of 1901 speakers were returned from Darjeeling and Sikkim, and also from Jalpaiguri and Purnea in the Bengal Presidency, and from Assam. The figures were as follows:—

								Car	ried ov	er	20,269
Sikkim .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5,910	
•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	14,359	

¹ I take this opportunity of acknowledging the most valuable assistance which has been rendered me in the preparation of the notes which follow by Major H. A. R. Senior, I.S.C. He has sent me an excellent version of the Parable, tables of the conjugation of the Limbu verb, and numerous important corrections to the sketch of Limbu grammar which I had prepared before seeing his notes. The ensuing pages are almost entirely based on those materials.

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							Bro	ught f	forward	•	20,269	
Jalpaiguri	•	•	•	•		•			•	1,723		
Purnea .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	43		
							Tota	l Ben	gal Pres	idency		22,035
							Assa	m.	•	•		1,165
									Gran	D TOTAL	•	23,200

The Limbus formerly possessed an alphabet of their own. A table of its characters was compiled by Lieutenant-General Mainwaring and published by Mr. A. Campbell in the Bengal Journal for 1855. The Limbu character is no longer in use, and no specimen has been forwarded in it.

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-On the Literature and Origin of certain Hill Tribes in Sikkim. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xi, Part i, 1842, pp. 4 and ff.

Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Sub-Himalayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal, No. xxvii, Calcutta, 1857, pp. 126 and ff, and under the title On the Aborigines of the Himalaya, in Hodgson's Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet. London, 1874, Part ii, pp. 29 and ff.

CAMPBELL, A.,—Note on the Limboo Alphabet of the Sikkim Himalaya. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxiv, 1855, pp. 202 and ff.

Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology with a Map shewing the Distribution of Indian Languages. Calcutta, 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Limbu, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Dalton, Edward Tuite,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Limbu vocabulary compiled from Campbell and Hodgson.

CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India. Calcutta, 1874, pp. 151 and ff. Hooker, Sir J.,—Himalayan Journals. London, 1891, p. 95.

Hodgson was once occupied with a grammatical analysis of the Limbu dialect. His sketch of the language was not, however, finished. Major H. A. R. Senior has lately taken up the study of the language. A grammar and vocabulary from his hand is under publication, and will amply compensate for Hodgson's failure to finish his work.

Major Senior has learnt Limbu from a member of the Fēdopīā tribe, which according to him are of the Kāsī-Kōtar, while Sir Herbert Risley classes it under the head of Lhāsā Kōtar. To that latter Kōtar belong the Tamarkhōlēās and the Fāgūrāī, while the Pāntharēā and other tribes are of the Kāsī-Kōtar. A version of the Parable and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Tamarkhōlēā Limbu have been kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar. Another version of the Parable and another list in the Fāgūrāī dialect have been forwarded from Darjeeling. These materials will be referred to in the ensuing pages, though the remarks which follow are mainly based on the materials mentioned above on p. 283, for which I am indebted to the kindness of Major Senior.

Pronunciation.—Hard and soft consonants are often interchangeable; thus, $ch\bar{\imath}a$ and $j\bar{\imath}a$, which; $k\bar{\imath}u$ -m- $p\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{\imath}u$ -m- $b\bar{a}$, his father.

L often interchanges with r, commonly in such a way that l is used after consonants, r after vowels: thus, \bar{o} - $r\bar{u}p$ - $l\bar{u}p$, fat; thik- $l\bar{e}\bar{o}$, one with; $k\bar{u}$ -m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}\bar{o}$, with his father; $k\bar{u}$ -m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$, by his father, but also $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$, by his son.

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Kh sometimes interchanges with h; thus, $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ and $h\bar{u}n\bar{e}$, he. The h-forms are common in Tamarkhōlēā.

Ch, chh, and s interchange in the suffix $ch\bar{\imath}$ of the dual and plural.

There are no proper tones in Limbu. The so-called abrupt tone is probably intended in spelling such as heh-mu, and hep-mu, in, in Fāgūrāī.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral thik, one, is sometimes used as an indefinite article; thus, $s\bar{e}ot\bar{e}$ thik, a servant. It is often preceded by lop; thus, lop-thik $p\bar{a}$, a father. Instead of lop-thik we also find la-thik. That latter form is used by dwellers near Tibet. $L\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$, a certain, is also used as an indefinite article; thus, $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$, to a man.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: $embechh\bar{a}$, man; $menchhem\bar{a}$, woman: $ph\bar{u}$, elder brother; $nenn\bar{e}$, elder sister: $n\bar{u}s\bar{a}$, younger brother; $n\bar{u}s\bar{a}$ menchhem \bar{a} , younger sister: $\bar{o}n$ y $\bar{a}rimb\bar{a}$, a stallion; $\bar{o}n$ k \bar{u} -m- $m\bar{a}$, a mare: pit y $\bar{a}rimb\bar{a}$, a bull: $p\bar{i}t$ - $m\bar{a}$, or pit- $k\bar{u}$ -m- $m\bar{a}$, a cow. The suffixes $k\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{a}$, male; $k\bar{u}$ -m- $m\bar{a}$, female, are only used to distinguish the gender of animals, and not in the case of human beings; thus, $pengw\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -m- $b\bar{a}$, a male deer; $pengw\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -m- $m\bar{a}$, a female deer.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is usually distinguished by means of the same suffixes as the plural. In $n\bar{e}deng-n\bar{e}-m\bar{o}$, on the two cheeks, however, the suffix $n\bar{e}$ is not a plural suffix, but probably a shorter form of the numeral $ne-ch\bar{i}$, two.

The usual suffixes of the plural are $h\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{\imath}$, or after t, $ch\bar{\imath}$; thus, $p\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, fathers; $s\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, children; $p\bar{\imath}t-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, cows; $p\bar{\imath}t-m\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, cows (generic), female cattle, also used loosely as a plural; $p\bar{\imath}t-ch\bar{\imath}$, cows, cattle (whether male or female). Both suffixes are sometimes combined; thus, $\bar{o}n-h\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, horses; $pa-h\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, fathers, ancestors. Note $ph\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, i.e., $ph\bar{a}k-h\bar{a}$, pigs.

Case.—A vocative is formed by adding \bar{e} , before which a final vowel is sometimes dropped; thus, $a-m-b-\bar{e}$, O my father; $\bar{a}-s\bar{u}-\bar{e}$, O my son. Instead of \bar{e} we also find $r\bar{e}$; thus, $a-m-p\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$, O my father.

The subject and the object are usually indicated by means of pronominal suffixes added to the verb, and no suffix is therefore required after the nouns. Thus, $s\bar{a}$ nechī $v\bar{a}yech\bar{i}$, two sons were; $s\bar{a}m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-s\bar{i}$, his goods he divided among them; $k\bar{u}-m-b\bar{a}$ $m\bar{e}t\bar{u}$, his-father he-said-to-him, he said to his father.

Often, however, suffixes are added to the noun. A suffix $\bar{\imath}n$, or, after vowels, n, is often added to a noun which is used as the subject of intransitive verbs, as an object, and also as an indirect object; thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{a}$ -n $s\bar{\imath}a$ - $b\bar{a}$ -n, my-son was dying; $ph\bar{a}k$ $ch\bar{a}n$ - $\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, pigs' food to-eat; $k\bar{o}n$ $y\bar{a}mb\bar{o}k$ - $\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}$, he has done this work; $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ -n $n\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{u}$ -ang, his-son having-seen; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{\imath}$ $ph\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{\imath}n$ $m\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}nd\bar{u}$, they finished eating the pig; $k\bar{o}n$ $y\bar{a}nm\bar{\imath}$ -n $sip\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$ $ang\bar{a}$ $bhart\bar{\imath}$ $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}ng$ - $k\bar{o}$ - $l\bar{o}$ - \bar{a} , this man soldiers-among I enlisted to-make-wish; $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$ $kh\bar{u}n$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{\imath}n$ $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, father-by them-to divided-to-them, the father divided among them. Instead of $\bar{\imath}n$ we also find en; thus, $\bar{o}r\bar{u}p$ - $l\bar{u}p$ $k\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{o}$ -ben $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r$ -en $s\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{e}$, fat being heifer kill; compare also $\bar{o}n$ -nin, to a horse. The suffix $\bar{\imath}n$, etc., is probably only an emphasizing particle and has nothing to do with the distinction of case.

Another suffix $l\bar{e}$ or $r\bar{e}$ is sometimes used to denote the direct or indirect object. It should be compared with Tibetan la. Thus, $\bar{a}nchh\bar{i}$ -sā $menchhem\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{o}\bar{o}mech\bar{e}$ $p\bar{e}chh\bar{i}$.

our-child woman to-see we-go, we go to see our daughter; $l\bar{o}-ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{\imath}-l\bar{e}$, to a man; $\bar{o}n-n\bar{\imath}-l\bar{e}$, to a horse. The same suffix is commonly used to denote the subject of transitive verbs; thus, $ph\bar{o}b\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$ $m\bar{e}t\bar{u}$, the-younger-by said-to-him; $p\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-s\bar{\imath}$, father-by divided-to-them, the father divided among them. Compare also $s\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}-h\bar{a}-r\bar{e}$ $kh\bar{e}khem-m\bar{e}$, ropes-with bind-him, where $r\bar{e}$ denotes the instrument. In forms such as $\bar{o}n-n\bar{\imath}-l\bar{e}$, to a horse, by a horse, $l\bar{e}$ is apparently added to another suffix $n\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{\imath}$.

Forms such as $\bar{o}n-n\bar{i}-l\bar{e}$ can also be used as a kind of locative, meaning on the horse, etc. The usual suffix of the locative is, however, $y\bar{o}$ (\bar{o} , $\bar{e}\bar{o}$) or $m\bar{o}$; thus, $p\bar{a}ng-ph\bar{e}-y\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{a}ngph\bar{e}-\bar{o}$, in a country, into a country; $p\bar{a}r\bar{i}h\bar{a}-y\bar{o}$ and $p\bar{a}r\bar{i}h\bar{a}-m\bar{o}$, in, into, the field; $k\bar{u}-ningw\bar{a}-m\bar{o}$, in his mind; $k'-him-m\bar{o}$, in thy house. Another form of the same suffix is apparently $r\bar{o}$; thus, $songw\bar{a}r\bar{o}-r\bar{o}-(n\bar{u})$, fields-in (-from). Compare the terminative suffix of Tibetan. A compound suffix of the locative is $khep-m\bar{o}$ or $hep-m\bar{o}$, which sometimes also occur as $kheh-y\bar{o}$, $kh\bar{e}y\bar{o}$, $heh-y\bar{o}$, $h\bar{e}y\bar{o}$, respectively; thus, $l\bar{a}j\bar{i}-hep-m\bar{o}$, in a country.

The suffix of the ablative is $n\bar{u}$; thus, $k\bar{o}y\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, here-from; $\bar{o}n-\bar{e}\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from on a horse; $songw\bar{a}r\bar{o}-m\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from in the fields; $w\bar{o}dump\bar{o}kw\bar{a}-\bar{o}-n\bar{u}$, from the well, and so forth.

The genitive is expressed by adding pronominal prefixes to the governing noun; thus, k'-m- $b\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -him- $m\bar{o}$, thy-father his-house-in, in thy father's house. The governed word is often followed by the suffix $r\bar{e}$ or $l\bar{e}$; thus, $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}na\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$, one manto his sons; $\bar{o}n$ - \bar{i} - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $gadh\bar{i}$, horse-to its-saddle, the horse's saddle; sing- $n\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}g$ - $e\bar{o}$, tree-to its-bottom-at, under the tree. The usual form of this suffix in the genitive is, however, len, ren; thus, $ph\bar{a}k$ - $h\bar{a}$ -ren $k'\bar{u}$ -n-tangben, pigs-of their-master.

The suffix $l\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}$ is connected with the postposition $l\bar{e}\bar{o}$, $r\bar{e}\bar{o}$; thus, thik- $l\bar{e}\bar{o}$, onewith; $k\bar{u}$ -m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}\bar{o}$, his-father-with; compare also $r\bar{o}$ in a-m- $p\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}$ $t\bar{a}chek$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ng, I will say to my father, and the suffix $r\bar{o}$ mentioned under the head of locative, above. Other postpositions are $lag\bar{\imath}$, for the sake of; $d\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, before; $t\bar{o}gang$ and $t\bar{o}g\bar{e}\bar{o}$, before (time and place); $\bar{e}gang$, behind; $b\bar{e}sang$ and $b\bar{e}s\bar{e}\bar{o}$, near, etc. The final ang in some of these forms is perhaps a suffix of the locative.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are very commonly followed by the suffix $p\bar{a}$, feminine $m\bar{a}$; thus, $n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}$, feminine $n\bar{o}-m\bar{a}$, good; $k\bar{u}-s\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}m-b\bar{a}$, his eldest son. By prefixing $k\bar{e}$ such adjectives are turned into nouns; thus, $k\bar{e}-n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{e}-n\bar{o}-m\bar{a}$, the good one.

Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. They usually precede it in the plural. They can be inflected for number; thus, $nechh\bar{\iota}$ $n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ (or $n\bar{o}-b\bar{a}$) $man\bar{e}-h\bar{a}$, two good men.

The particle of comparison is $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$, i.e., a fuller form of the ablative suffix $n\bar{u}$; thus, $k\bar{o}n$ $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $n\bar{a}khen$ $(chhen\bar{a})$ $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, this from that (more) good, this is better than that; khel-len $k\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ -embechh \bar{a} $k\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ -menchhem \bar{a} $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $y\bar{o}mm\bar{a}$ $w\bar{a}$, him-of hisbrother his-sister from tall is; $k\bar{a}k$ $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{e}$ $ang\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$, all from I good, I am best of all.

The Khas particle $bhand\bar{a}$ is sometimes used instead of $n\bar{u}l\bar{e}$; thus, $k\bar{a}k$ $bhand\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}$ - $b\bar{a}$ $t\bar{e}t$ - $h\bar{a}$, all from good good clothes, the best clothes.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. Addition is effected by placing the smaller after the higher numeral. Multiplication, on the other hand, is indicated by prefixing the multiplier. Thus, angā li-gip nechī tong yōā, I forty-two

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years reached, I am forty-two years old; thibong thik, ten one, eleven; sūm-bong, three-ten, thirty; li-gip, four-ten, forty; tū-kip, sixty; nū-gip, seventy; ye-kip, eighty; mānā thik li-gip nū-sī, one hundred and forty-seven. Note thī-kip, hundred; kip-nechī, two hundred; kip-līsī, four hundred; thībong kip, or pātī thik, thousand; nībong kip, or pātī nechī, two thousand. It will be seen that a suffixed kip usually means 'ten,' but a prefixed kip usually 'hundred.'

The numerals sometimes precede and sometimes follow the word they qualify.

There are no ordinal numbers. The Aryan $pahil\bar{o}$, first; $d\bar{o}sr\bar{o}$, second, etc., are used, and, on the whole, the old Limbu numerals are gradually being replaced by Aryan forms.

Multiplicatives are formed by adding leng or reng to the cardinals; thus, $s\bar{u}m$ -leng, three times; $n\bar{a}$ -reng, five times. It will be seen that the final $s\bar{i}$, $ch\bar{i}$, of the cardinals is dropped before leng. At the same time older forms are sometimes restored; thus, ye- $ch\bar{i}$, eight, but yet-leng, eight times. Note $p\bar{a}il\bar{e}$ -thik-leng and thik-leng, once; $n\bar{i}$ -reng, twice; $th\bar{i}$ -bong $nech\bar{i}$ leng, twelve times, etc.

Zero is expressed by hop (compare $hop\text{-}m\bar{a}$, to be absent), or, more generally, by the Aryan sun or $sunny\bar{e}$.

Instances of fractional numbers are $k\bar{u}$ -khelek or $k\bar{u}$ -phereng, one half; $k\bar{u}$ -khelek ang $k\bar{u}$ -khelek, or $k\bar{u}$ -khelek $k\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ -khelek, or $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{u}kw\bar{a}$, one fourth; $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{u}kw\bar{a}$ s $\bar{u}ms\bar{i}$, three fourths; lop-thik ang $k\bar{u}$ -s $\bar{u}kw\bar{a}$ thik, one and one fourth; th $\bar{i}bong$ lok-kh $\hat{e}y\bar{o}$ (or lok- $y\bar{o}$) lok-s $\bar{u}m$ -s \bar{i} , three tenths, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

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ang\bar{a}, I.khen\bar{e}, thou.kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}, he.\bar{a}-, my.k'-, thy.k\bar{u}-, his.\bar{a}n-ch\bar{\imath}, I and thou.khen-ch\bar{\imath}, you two.kh\bar{u}n-ch\bar{\imath}, they two, they.\bar{a}n\bar{e}, I and you.khen\bar{\imath}, you.\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}, I and they.khen\bar{\imath}, you.
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The usual case suffixes can be added; thus, $ang\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}n$, of me; $ang\bar{a}-\bar{o}$, in me, mine; $khen\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}n$, of thee; $khen\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}n$, of you; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}n$, of him; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}n$, to them, etc. There are several other forms of the third person. $Kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ is only used of persons absent; $n\bar{a}$ denotes a person present, but a little farther off; $n\bar{a}-khen$ is used of persons present; khen often has a somewhat contemptuous meaning. It often takes the form of hen, just as $h\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ occurs in addition to $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$. Note forms such as $khell\bar{e}$, to him, by him; khellen, his, etc.

The dual and the plural of the third person have the same form. The suffix $ch\bar{\imath}$ is probably an old dual-suffix. It is, however, identical with the plural suffix $s\bar{\imath}$. $N\bar{\imath}$ is a plural suffix.

The short forms \bar{a} -, my; k'-, thy; $k\bar{u}$ -, his, her, its, are used as pronominal prefixes. Thus, \bar{a} -s \bar{a} , my son; k'-s \bar{a} , thy son; $k\bar{u}$ -s \bar{a} , his son; $ang\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -lag \bar{i} , I my-sake-for, for my sake; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ -lag \bar{i} , for his sake. A nasal is often inserted before a following mute consonant. Thus, $k\bar{u}$ -n-g $\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, his mother's brother; $ph\bar{a}k$ -h \bar{a} -ren $k\bar{u}$ -n-tangben, swine-of their master; \bar{a} -n-d $\bar{i}ng$ -b \bar{a} -h \bar{a} , my friends; a-m-p \bar{a} and a-m-b \bar{a} , my father; $k\bar{u}$ -m-bhang \bar{a} , his father's younger brother.

It will be seen that the personal pronoun which we translate as a possessive is often put in the nominative before such prefixes. The prefixes themselves in reality replace

the genitive suffix. Limbu in this respect not only agrees with other Nepal languages such as Khambu and Yākhā, but also with an important group of Tibeto-Burman languages in Further India, viz., the so-called Kuki-Chin group.

The pronominal prefixes are also, as is likewise the case in the Kuki-Chin languages, used in connexion with verbs, in order to denote the subject, and partly also the object. See the remarks under the head of verbs below.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstrative pronouns; thus, khen, that. The nearer demonstrative is $k\bar{o}n$, this.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{e}n$, $h\bar{a}$, and $\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$, who? $th\bar{e}$ and hen, what? $\bar{a}khen$, howmuch? $\bar{a}tang$, where, from what place? $\bar{a}tis-m\bar{a}$, of what kind? Thus, $h\bar{a}-p\bar{e}$, who is it? k'-thar $th\bar{e}-b\bar{e}$, which is thy clan? tong $\bar{a}khen$ $tong-b\bar{e}$ $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-y\bar{o}$, years how-many years thou thou-reachedest? how old are you? $\bar{a}tism\bar{a}$ $S\bar{o}demb\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}-b\bar{e}$, what kind of $S\bar{o}demb\bar{a}$ are you?

According to Major Senior, there is sometimes a slight difference of dialect. Thus Fēdopīā $\bar{e}n$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Fāgūrāī and Tamarkhōlēā $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Pāntharēā $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{e}$, who are you? Fēdopīā k'-ming hen $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Tamarkhōlēā khenē k'ming $th\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, Pāntharēā khenē k'ming $th\bar{e}$ -(n)- $b\bar{e}$, what is your name? and so on. Forms such as $th\bar{e}$, what? are, however, understood by all Limbus.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding ang to interrogatives; thus, $th\bar{e}$ -ang, anything; $\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{e}$ -ang, by anyone. Note also $l\bar{o}ch\bar{a}$, a certain.

There are no indigenous relative pronouns. Participles are used instead; thus, $\bar{b}r\bar{u}p$ - $l\bar{u}p$ $k\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{o}$ -ben $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r$ -en phete- $m\bar{e}$, fat the-being-one heifer bring. Aryan loan-words are, however, also used, and relative clauses are then formed as in Aryan languages; thus, $k\bar{o}n$ $teph\bar{u}n$ $ch\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{o}k$ $t\bar{e}k\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , this property which my-share I-get, the share of the property which I shall get; $b\bar{o}h\bar{o}r$ -en $ch\bar{a}$ $khen\bar{e}$ k'-hing- $kh\bar{u}$, the-heifer which thou thou-caredest-for-it, the heifer which you cared for; $jast\bar{o}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{u}k$ -ben $it\bar{u}$ $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{a}$, as hisson youngest said had, as his youngest son had said.

Verbs.—The Limbu verb presents a complicated picture, the subject and the object being often indicated by means of pronominal prefixes and suffixes added to the verb. In other respects the verb is, as is the case in most Tibeto-Burman languages, essentially a noun. Thus, the suffix $s\bar{i}$ or $ch\bar{i}$, which is identical with the suffix added in the dual of personal pronouns and in the plural of nouns and of the pronoun of the third person, is added to a verb the subject of which is in the dual. Compare k'- $p\bar{e}g$, thou goest; k'-pek- $ch\bar{i}$, you two go; $p\bar{o}ng$, he becomes; $p\bar{o}ng$ - $s\bar{i}$, they two become.

We have seen above that pronominal prefixes are used before nouns governing a genitive; thus, $khen\bar{e}\ k'$ - $s\bar{a}$, thou thy-son, thy son. An exactly corresponding form is $khen\bar{e}\ k'$ - $w\bar{a}$, thou thy-being, thou art. Such forms can be considered as two nouns, one governing the other in the genitive. The use of prefixes and suffixes is, however, much more extensive with verbs than in the case of nouns.

Voice.—There can be said to be three voices, an active, a passive, and a middle. The difference between the active and the passive, which latter form is always used in the case of intransitive verbs, is simply effected by adding suffixes denoting the object to the active. Several active forms are, however, wanting and replaced by the corresponding passive ones. Thus, $hip-\bar{a}$, he strikes me, literally means 'I am struck.'

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The middle is formed by adding sing or ching to the passive or intransitive form in the singular and the third person plural. In the dual a suffix ne is inserted before the dual suffix $ch\bar{\imath}$, and in the first and second persons plural \bar{a} -s $\bar{\imath}$ is added. The verb hip- $m\bar{a}$, to strike, accordingly forms its middle as follows:—

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Sing. 1 hip-\bar{a}-sing. Dual 1 incl. \bar{a}-hip-ne-ch\bar{\iota}. Plural 1 incl. \bar{a}-hip-\bar{a}-s\bar{\iota}. 2 k'hip-sing. 1 excl. hip-ne-ch\bar{\iota}-g\bar{e}. 1 excl. hip-\bar{a}-s\bar{\iota}-g\bar{e}. 2 k'hip-\bar{a}-s\bar{\iota}. 3 hip-sing. 3 hip-ne-ch\bar{\iota}. 3 m\bar{e}-hip-sing.
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The middle is also used as a reflexive form, and further in forms such as $k\bar{u}$ -ching, he carried on his back.

Subject and object.—It has already been remarked that the subject and the object are often indicated by means of pronominal prefixes and suffixes added to the verb. If more than one prefix is used at the same time, the first person precedes the second, and the second the third; thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip, my-thy-striking, you strike me; k'- $m\bar{e}$ -hip, thy-their-striking, they strike thee.

It has already been remarked that active-transitive forms are commonly distinguished from such as are passive-intransitive. Limbu does not, however, possess complete sets of active and passive forms. Intransitives always take the passive form, and the same is also the case with many active forms of transitive verbs.

A subject of the first person singular is indicated by adding ang, or, after vowels ng; thus, $p\bar{e}g$ -ang, I went; hip- $t\bar{u}$ -ng, I strike him; hip-ne- $n\bar{\iota}$ -ng, I strike you two. Instead of ang we find \bar{a} in the present tense of intransitive and passive verbs; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , I go; $p\bar{o}k$ - \bar{a} , I arise; $s\bar{\iota}a$ - $k\bar{o}t$ - \bar{a} , I am dying; hip- \bar{a} , I am struck by him. This \bar{a} is perhaps simply the copula; compare $ang\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}kth\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , I Limbu-am. It is, however, also possible that \bar{a} has been derived from $(a)ng\bar{a}$, I, for a preceding soft sound is sometimes hardened before this \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , I go, but $p\bar{e}g\bar{a}$, he went.

A subject of the first person singular is not marked if the object is of the second person singular; thus, $hip-n\bar{e}$, I strike thee. The form $\bar{a}-hip-ne-ch\bar{i}$, I strike me and thee, is identical with the first person plural of the middle.

The suffix ang, ng, is also used to denote an object of the first person singular if the subject is of the second person singular past or imperative, or the third person singular or plural of the past. Thus, k'-hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, struckest me; $p\bar{\imath}$ -r-ang- $n\bar{e}$, give me; hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, he struck me; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $t\bar{a}ng$, they struck me. Ang is replaced by \bar{a} in the corresponding forms of the present; thus, k'hip- \bar{a} , strikest me; hip- \bar{a} , strikes me; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- \bar{a} , they strike me. Such forms are properly passive. If the subject is of the second person dual or plural, \bar{a} is prefixed; thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, you two strike me; \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{e}$, strike me ye two; \bar{a} -k'-hip- $t\bar{\imath}$, you struck me. Forms such as hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two strike me; $s\bar{u}t$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, they two finish me, are simply the dual of the base and do not contain any suffix indicating the object.

A subject of the second person singular is indicated by prefixing k'- to the verb; thus k'- $p\bar{e}g$, goest; k'- $p\bar{e}$, wentest; k'- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$, didst it. In the imperative a suffix \bar{e} or $n\bar{e}$ is used instead; thus, $p\bar{o}k$ -h- \bar{e} , become; hip-tang- \bar{e} , strike me; $p\bar{\iota}$ -rang- $n\bar{e}$, give me.

The suffix $n\bar{e}$ is also used to denote an object of the second person singular if the subject is of the first person singular; thus, $hip - n\bar{e}$, I strike thee. Such forms are probably originally passive; compare $khen\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou who art? $khen\bar{e}$ $k\bar{e}-hip - p\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou vol. III, PART I.

art a beater. The same is also the case with forms such as k'-hip, he strikes thee; k'-hip- $t\bar{e}$, he struck thee; k'- $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they strike thee, etc. Other forms do not contain any suffix to denote an object of the second person singular; thus, hip- $t\bar{e}$, we strike or struck thee; hip-ne- $ch\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we two strike, or struck, thee. Compare the forms registered above under the head of the middle voice.

A subject of the third person singular is not indicated by means of any prefix or suffix; thus, $p\bar{e}g$, he goes; $p\bar{e}$, he went; hip- $t\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, he strikes us, etc.

A subject of the first person dual including the person addressed is indicated by prefixing \bar{a} and suffixing the dual $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$; thus, $\bar{a}-p\bar{e}k-ch\bar{\imath}$, I and thou go; $\bar{a}-p\bar{e}-s\bar{\imath}$, we went; $\bar{a}-w\bar{a}-ye-ch\bar{\imath}$, we were, etc. The final $\bar{\imath}$ is superseded by the \bar{u} indicating an object of third person; thus, $\bar{a}-hip-s-\bar{u}$, we strike him; $\bar{a}-hip-te-ch-\bar{u}$, we struck him.

An object of the inclusive first person dual is expressed in the same way if the subject is of the third person; thus, \bar{a} -hip-s \bar{i} , he strikes thee and me; \bar{a} -m \bar{e} -hip-s \bar{i} , they, or they two, strike thee and me. Such forms are in reality passive. The reflexive form is used with a subject of the first person; thus, \bar{a} -hip-ne-ch \bar{i} , I strike us two. If the subject is of the second person, an object of the first person dual or plural is simply indicated by prefixing \bar{a} , the prefix of the first person singular; thus, \bar{a} -k'-hip, thou, you two, or you, strike us two, or us; \bar{a} -hip-t \bar{e} , strike us two, or us. In such cases there does not appear to be any difference between such forms as include and exclude the person addressed.

A subject of the first person dual, when the person addressed is excluded, is indicated by adding $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$; thus pek- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we two go; $p\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we went; hip-ne- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we strike you. The \bar{n} indicating an object of the third person is substituted for the $\bar{\imath}$ of $s\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$; thus, hip-s-u- $g\bar{e}$, we two strike him; $s\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{e}$ -ch-u- $g\bar{e}$, we two finished him.

An object of the exclusive first person dual is indicated by means of the same suffix if the subject is of the third person singular or plural; thus, hip- $t\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, he struck us two; $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, they strike us two. Such forms can just as well be translated 'we two were struck,' 'we two are struck by them,' respectively. If the subject is of the first or second person, an object of the exclusive first person dual is expressed in the same way as if the person addressed is included.

A subject of the second person dual is indicated by prefixing k' and suffixing $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$, the final $\bar{\imath}$ being dropped before the $\bar{\imath}$ denoting an object of the third person. Thus, $k'p\bar{e}k-ch\bar{\imath}$, you go; $\bar{a}-k'-hip-te-ch\bar{\imath}$, you struck me; $k'hip-s-\bar{\imath}$, you strike him. The prefix k' is used alone, i.e., the second person singular is substituted for the second person

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plural, if the object is of the first person dual or plural; see above. In the imperative the prefix k' is dropped, and the final $ch\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$ is replaced by $ch\bar{e}$, $s\bar{e}$, respectively; thus, $p\bar{e}g\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{e}$ and $p\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{e}$, go ye two; \bar{a} -hip-te- $ch\bar{e}$, strike me, us, us two; hip-te- $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{e}$, strike them two, etc.

The same forms are also used to denote an object of the second person dual with a subject of the third person; thus, k'-hip-te-chī, he struck you two; k' mē-hip-te-chī, they struck you two. Such forms can, of course, just as well be translated 'you two were struck,' 'were struck by them,' respectively. If the subject is of the first person, an object of the second person dual is expressed in the same way as if it were of the second person singular. If the subject is of the first person singular, however, $ch\bar{i}$ is added to the $n\bar{e}$ denoting the second person singular, and the termination ng of the first person singular is suffixed. Thus, hip-ne-ch \bar{i} -ng, I strike, or struck, you two; hip-ne-ch \bar{i} -g \bar{e} , we two strike, or struck, you two.

A subject of the third person dual is expressed by adding the dual suffix $s\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ to the base; thus, $p\bar{o}ng-s\bar{\imath}$, they two become, $w\bar{a}-y\bar{e}-ch\bar{\imath}$ or $w\bar{a}-y\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, they two were. The final $\bar{\imath}$ is dropped before the \bar{u} denoting an object of the third person; thus, $hip-s-\bar{u}$, they two strike him.

There is not a complete set of forms in this person. The intransitive forms are used, without any indication of the object, if it is of the first person singular or dual excluding the person addressed; thus, $hip-s\bar{\imath}$, they two strike me, or me and him. If the object is of the first person plural, or of the second person, the corresponding forms of the third person plural are used instead; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they two, or they, strike us two; k'- $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two, or they, strike thee. Thus also \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$, they two, or they, strike thee and me. Note $m\bar{e}$ -hip, they two strike me and him; but $m\bar{e}$ -hip- $s\bar{\imath}$ · $g\bar{e}$, they (plural) strike me and him.

An object of the third person dual or plural is indicated by adding $s\bar{\imath}$ to the $\bar{\imath}$ denoting an object of the third person singular; thus, k'-hip- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, thou strikest them; mung- $kh\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, he made them play; hip- $s\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, they two struck them, etc. The suffix ng of the first person singular and the suffix m of the first and second persons plural are put both after $\bar{\imath}$ and $s\bar{\imath}$; thus, $ch\bar{\imath}j\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ -ng- $s\bar{\imath}$ -ng, I feasted them; hip- $t\bar{\imath}$ -m- $s\bar{\imath}$ -m- $b\bar{e}$, we strike them. In the second person singular of the imperative the termination is $\bar{\imath}s\bar{e}$ and not $\bar{e}s\bar{\imath}$; thus, hip- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{e}$, strike them two.

A subject of the first person plural including the person addressed is indicated by prefixing \bar{a} ; thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}g$, I and you go; \bar{a} - $p\bar{o}k$ - $s\bar{e}$, we became. Such forms are never used with an object of the first or the second person. If there is an object of the third person, m is added to the suffix of the object; thus, \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m, we strike, or struck him; \bar{a} -hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $s\bar{i}$ -m, we strike, or struck them.

The prefix \bar{a} is also used to denote an object of the inclusive first person plural; thus, $\bar{a}-k'-hip$, thou, or you, strike us; $\bar{a}-hip-t\bar{e}$, he struck us; $\bar{a}-m\bar{e}-hip$, they strike us. Such forms are properly passive. If the subject is of the first person singular, an object of the first person plural is indicated by adding $ne-n\bar{i}$; thus, hip-ne-ni-ng, I strike us.

If the person addressed is excluded, the suffix of the first person plural is $\bar{\imath}g\bar{e}$ in intransitive and passive verbs; thus, $p\bar{e}g-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we go, we went: $p\bar{o}k-s-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we became; $w\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we were. With an object of the second person the corresponding suffix is $\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, and it is $m-b\bar{e}$ if there is an object of the third person; thus, $hip-\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}-g\bar{e}$, we you in, part 1.

strike, or struck, thee, or you two, or you; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-b\bar{e}$, we strike, or struck, him; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-b\bar{e}$, we strike, or struck, them.

An object of the exclusive first person dual is indicated by adding $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, thus, hip-t- $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, he strikes us; $m\bar{e}$ -hip-t- $\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$, they strike us. Such forms are properly passive. Corresponding forms with a subject of the first or second person do not appear to exist.

A subject of the second person plural is indicated by prefixing k' and suffixing an $\bar{\imath}$, before which a final vowel is often dropped. Thus, $k'-p\bar{e}g-\bar{\imath}$, you go; $k'-p\bar{o}k-h-\bar{\imath}$, you became; $\bar{a}-k'-hip-t-\bar{\imath}$, you strike me. If there is an object of the first person, the final $\bar{\imath}$ is apparently dropped in the present; thus, $\bar{a}-k'-hip$, you strike me, or us. An m is substituted for $\bar{\imath}$, if there is an object of the third person; thus, $k'-hip-t\bar{u}-m-s\bar{\imath}-m$, you strike them. The same m is used in the imperative of transitive verbs before the suffix of the second person plural, which is in that form $m\bar{e}$; thus, $hip-te-m-m\bar{e}$, strike ye him; $\bar{a}-hip-te-m-m\bar{e}$, strike me, or us; $hip-te-m-s\bar{\imath}-m\bar{e}$, strike them.

A subject of the third person plural is marked by adding the prefix $m\tilde{e}$; thus, $m\tilde{e}$ pong, they become; $m\tilde{e}$ -lak- $h\tilde{e}$, they were playing; \tilde{a} - $m\tilde{e}$ -hip- $t\tilde{e}$ - $ch\tilde{i}$, they struck us, etc.

Verbs substantive.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. \bar{A} is used in all persons and numbers; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}sht\bar{a}$ $k\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , I sin doer-am, I have sinned; hing- \bar{a} , he is alive. Other bases used in the same way are $b\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{a}$, $d\bar{\iota}$ and $d\bar{\iota}$ - $g\bar{e}$ (first person plural) ning (second person plural), neching (second person dual), etc. The verb $l\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be, is also used as a copula. It takes the form $r\bar{o}$ after vowels. The present tense is $l\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{o}$ throughout; the past is $l\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{e}$, which is regularly inflected. The verb $p\bar{o}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$, to become, is often used in a similar way. It forms its past tense in $s\bar{e}$ or $h\bar{e}$; thus, $p\bar{o}k$ -h-ang or $p\bar{o}k$ -s-ang, I became. A similar verb is $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be present, to remain, to be, past $w\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$. The table which follows registers the present and past of this verb:—

	Singular.	,		DUAL.	PLURAL,		
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
l excl.	wā-ā	$war{a} ext{-}y ext{-}ang$	wā-s ī -gē	wā-ye-chī-gē	wā-i-gē	$war{a}$ - i - $gar{e}$	
l incl.			ā-wā-s ī	ā-wā-ye-chi	ā-wā	$ar{a} ext{-}war{a} ext{-}yar{e}$	
2	k'-wā	k'-wā-yē	k'-พร-รรั	k`-wā-ye-chī	k^{2} - $war{a}$ - $yar{\imath}$	k '- $wec{a}$ - $yar{e}$	
3	เบลิ	$war{a}$ - $yar{e}$	wā-sī	wā-ye-chī	ทเอ็-wa	mē-wā-yē	

Finite verb.—The inflexion of the finite verb is comparatively simple, allowing for the difficulties resulting from the use of the pronominal prefixes and suffixes. There are only two real tenses, a present which is also used as a future, and a past.

Present tense.—The base alone is used as a present tense; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , I go; k- $p\bar{e}g$, thou goest; $p\bar{e}g$, he goes; dual 1 incl. \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}k$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, 1 excl. $p\bar{e}k$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $g\bar{e}$; 2 k'- $p\bar{e}k$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$; plural 1 incl. \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}g$; 1 excl. $p\bar{e}g$ - $ig\bar{e}$; 2 k'- $p\bar{e}g$ - $ig\bar{e}$; 3 $m\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{e}g$.

In the case of transitive verbs the same form is often used in the present and past tense. Some of these seem to belong to the present, while others appear to be originally

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forms of the past. To the former class belong some forms where the subject is of the first person and the object of the second, and which seem to be closely connected with the forms registered above under the head of middle voice. Such forms are $hip - n\bar{e}$, I strike thee; \bar{a} -hip-ne- $ch\bar{i}$, I strike us two; hip-ne- $ch\bar{i}$ -ng, I strike you two; hip-ne- $n\bar{i}$ -ng, I strike you, or us; hip-ne- $ch\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we two strike thee, or you; $hip\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, we strike thee, or you.

To the second class, which seems to contain forms originally belonging to the past tense, belong all those forms which contain an object suffix of the third person if the subject is of the singular or the plural; thus, $hip \cdot t\bar{u} \cdot ng$, I strike him; $m\bar{e} \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{u} \cdot s\bar{i}$, they strike them. The same is the case if the object is of the second person plural and the subject of the third person; thus, $k' \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{i}$, he strikes you; $k' \cdot m\bar{e} \cdot hip \cdot t\bar{i}$, they two, or they, strike you. A form of the same kind is, finally, the third person singular with an object of the exclusive first person plural; thus, $hip \cdot t\bar{i} \cdot g\bar{e}$, he strikes us.

All other forms of the present are quite regular. Thus, k-hip- \bar{a} , thou strikest me; \bar{a} -k'-hip, thou strikest us; k'-hip, thou art struck by him; \bar{a} -hip- $s\bar{\iota}$, we two are struck by him; \bar{a} -hip-s- $\bar{\iota}$, we two strike him, and so forth.

A kind of present definite is formed by adding \bar{a} , $b\bar{a}$, $b\bar{e}$, or other forms of the copula to the present; thus, \bar{a} - $n\bar{\imath}$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$, we are dancing; $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $l\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$, he is dancing; $m\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$, they are dancing; $kken\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}tang$ k'- $w\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{e}$, where do you live?

Past time.—The base alone is sometimes used as a past tense; thus, k'- $p\bar{e}$, wentest; $p\bar{e}$, went. Commonly, however, an \bar{e} is added, thus, $p\bar{e}g$ - \bar{e} , went; $p\bar{o}g$ - \bar{e} , arose. This \bar{e} is always dropped before pronominal suffixes beginning with vowels; thus, $p\bar{e}g$ -ang, I went; $ch\bar{o}g$ - \bar{u} -ng, I did it.

The suffix \tilde{e} is commonly preceded by a consonant. I have noted the following:— kh, t, d, r, s, and h. Thus, $pang-kh-\tilde{u}$, he sent him; $l\tilde{o}k-t\tilde{e}$, he ran; hip-t-ang, he struck me; $hip-t-\tilde{u}-ng$, I struck him; $m\tilde{a}n-d-\tilde{u}$, he finished eating it; $k\tilde{e}-r\tilde{e}$, he arrivel; $ph\tilde{e}-r\tilde{e}$, he came; $s\tilde{u}-r-\tilde{u}-ng$, I finished him; $l\tilde{a}-s\tilde{e}$, he entered; $kh\tilde{o}-s-\tilde{u}-ng$, I found him; $p\tilde{o}k-h\tilde{e}$, he became, and so on.

The suffix \bar{e} is also dropped before the copula \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{e}g-\bar{a}$, he went; $p\bar{g}g-\bar{a}$, he arose; $ph\bar{e}-r-\bar{a}$, he came.

A final consonant is often changed in the past. Thus t is dropped in $s\bar{u}t$ - $m\bar{i}$, to finish, past $s\bar{u}$ -r- \bar{u} ; ng is changed to k in $p\bar{o}ng$ - $m\bar{z}$, to become, past $p\bar{o}k$ - $h\bar{e}$, became; $l\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$, to dance, past $l\bar{a}k$ - \bar{e} , he danced, etc.

A perfect is formed by adding $b\bar{a}n$ to the past; thus, $kh\bar{o}$ - $s\bar{u}$ -ng- $b\bar{\iota}n$, I have found him; sep-k'-pang- $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{\iota}$, thou hast caused them to kill; $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, he has done.

A pluperfect is formed by adding $b\bar{a}n\bar{e}-b\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}n\bar{e}s-b\bar{a}$ to the past; thus, $\bar{\iota}-t\bar{u}$ $b\bar{a}n\bar{e}(s)-b\bar{a}$, he had said.

Other periphrastic forms of the past are $si\bar{a}-b\bar{e}-b\bar{a}n$, he has been dead; $k\bar{e}-m\bar{a}-ben$ $w\bar{a}$, he is a-lost-one, he was lost; $khom-men\bar{a}$, he was found by us; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-men\bar{a}$, we were beating him; $hip-t\bar{u}-m-men\bar{a}-s\bar{\imath}$, were beating them, and so on.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding \bar{e} , before which the same consonants can be used as in the case of the past tense, with which the imperative mainly agrees in form. Thus, $p\bar{e}g-\bar{e}$, go; $y\bar{u}ng-\bar{e}$, sit; $p\bar{i}-r\bar{e}$, give; $l\bar{o}k-t\bar{e}$, run.

In the dual chē or sē, and in the plural mē is added; thus, pēgechē, pēge nē, go ye; chēsē, chēmē, eat; yūngechē, yūngemē, sit, and so on.

A corresponding first person dual and plural is formed by adding $ch\bar{i}$, \bar{i} , respectively; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, let us two go; $p\bar{e}g$ - \bar{i} , let us go. In $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, let us eat, the infinitive is used instead, and in thang, let us become (merry), the base alone is employed as an imperative.

An object is indicated by inserting the usual prefixes and suffixes; thus, $p\bar{\imath}$ -r-ang- $n\bar{e}$, give me; $ch\bar{o}k$ -ang- \bar{e} , make me; \bar{a} - $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, divide to us; chak-te- $m\bar{e}$, put it on him; $s\bar{e}$ -r- \bar{e} - $m\bar{e}$, kill it, etc. The form $p\bar{\imath}$ -rang- $n\bar{e}$, give me, shows that \bar{e} is often replaced by $n\bar{e}$ after ng.

A negative imperative is expressed by prefixing meh and suffixing $n\bar{e}$, or, after ng $nin\bar{e}$ in the singular, $ch\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ in the dual, and $min\bar{e}$ in the plural. Thus, meh met-ang- $nin\bar{e}$, do not call me; meh hip-tem- $min\bar{e}$, do not we beat him. If there is already a prefix indicating the object, n, or, before labials, m, is added to this prefix, and meh is not used. The table which follows registers the principal forms of the imperative of hip- $m\bar{a}$, to strike.

1	STI	BIKE THOU.	STRIK	E YE TWO.	STRIKE YE.			
	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.	Positive.	Negative.		
me	hip-tang-ē	meh-hip-tang- ninē	$ar{a} ext{-}hip ext{-}t$ e-ch $ar{e}$	ān-hip-te-chē- nē	ā-hip-tem-mē	ān-hip-tem-minē		
thee	hip-sing-ē	meh-hip-sing- ninē						
him	hip - $tar{e}$	meh-hip-tē-nē	hip-te-chē	meh-hip-te-chē- nē	h i p-tem-mē	meh-hip-tem-minë		
us two or	$ar{a} ext{-}hip ext{-}tar{e}$	ā-n-hip-tē-nē	ā-hip-te-chē	ān-h i p-te-chē- nē	ā-hip-tem-mē	ān-hip-tem-minē		
you two or you			hip-ne-chē	mch-hip-ne-chē- nē	hip-āsi-mē	mel-hip-āsim- minē		
them two or them	hip-tē-sē	mch-hip-tē-sē-nē	hip-te-chī-sē	meh-hip-te-chi-' sē-nē	hip-tem-si-mē	mel-hip-tem-sim- minē		

An \tilde{o} can be added to the positive imperative, if the action is desired to take place after some time; thus, hip-tang- \tilde{e} - \tilde{o} , strike me in a little while.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The suffix $m\bar{a}$ is commonly used in order to form an infinitive or verbal noun; thus, $l.\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, to divide; $k\bar{u}-m\bar{a}$, to carry on one's back; $kho-m\bar{a}$, to lift up; $kh\bar{o}-m\bar{a}$, to find; $sapl\bar{a}$ $n\bar{\imath}p-m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}p-m\bar{a}$ $k'-le-s\bar{u}-b\bar{\imath}$ $ken-le-s\bar{u}'-n-b\bar{\imath}$, can you read and write or no?

The infinitive of purpose is formed by adding $s\bar{e}$, $ch\bar{e}$, or sometimes $kh\bar{e}$, thus, $k\bar{o}m$ - $s\bar{e}$, in order to graze; $\bar{o}me$ - $ch\bar{e}$, in order to watch; $ang\bar{a}\ y\bar{a}kth\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}\ ang\ sip\bar{a}h\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{o}\ bhart\bar{i}$ $p\bar{o}ng$ - $kh\bar{e}$ (or $-s\bar{e}$) $t\bar{e}$ -ang, I am a Limbu and I have come to become a soldier; $t\bar{a}ndik$ $anga\ k'$ -hip- $s\bar{e}\ p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} , to-morrow I will go to beat thee.

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A relative participle and noun of agency is formed by prefixing $k\bar{e}$ and suffixing $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$, feminine $m\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, an eater; $k\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$, a doer; $k\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{u}ng$ - $b\bar{a}$, a sitter, an inhabitant. Such forms can be inflected for person. Compare the forms of $k\bar{e}$ -hip- $p\bar{a}$, a striker, which follow:—

	Singular.	Dual.	Plural.
1 incl.		kē-hip-pā-s ī	kē- hiρ-pū-/ī
l exclusive	kē-l•ip-pā	kē-hip-pā-sī-gē	$kar{e}$ - hip - $par{a}$ - $tar{\imath}$ - $aar{e}$
2	kẽ-hip-p $ar{a}$ -n $ar{e}$	$kar{e}$ - $h\cdot ho$ - p - $ar{v}$ -neching	kē-hip-pā-ne-ning
3			kē-hip-pā-sī

Thus, ātang kē-yūng-bā-nē, where sitter-you? where do you dwell? Kōyā khōlā kē-yūng-bā-ā, Koya river sitter-am, I live in the Koya district; Kōyā khōlāsang ātī-'n pāng-phē-yō kē-yūng-bā-nē, Koya being what village-in sitter-art? in what village of the Koya do you dwell? angā nē-sū-ng khenē yāmbōk nō-rik kē-chōg-pā-nē rēchhō, I see-it thou work well doer-art stayest, I see you did your work well.

A verbal noun denoting the thing done or effected by the action of the verb is formed by adding n; i.e., probably $\bar{\imath}n$, to the base; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -n, food; $p\bar{a}$ -n, speech.

There is no conjunctive participle. The word ang, also, and, is added to the ordinary tenses instead; thus, $t\bar{a}ndik$ $ang\bar{a}$ $k'hip-\bar{a}-ang$ $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-p\bar{e}g$, to-morrow me thou-wilt beat-me-and thou thou-wilt-go, to-morrow having beaten me thou wilt go; $m\bar{e}m\bar{a}$ $ang\bar{a}$ k'-hip-tang-ang $khen\bar{e}$ $k'-p\bar{e}g\bar{e}-b\bar{a}n$, yesterday me thou-struckest-and thou thou-gone-hast; $t\bar{e}t-h\bar{a}$ $lo-te-m\bar{e}-ang$ $chak-te-m\bar{e}$, clothes take-them-out-ye-and put-on-him-ye, having brought clothes put them on him; $kh\bar{o}p-s\bar{u}-ang$, having taken up; $k\bar{e}-r\bar{e}-ang$, having arrived. Sang is sometimes used instead of ang; thus, $w\bar{a}-y\bar{e}-s-ang$, having been; $khen\bar{e}$ $y\bar{a}k-th\bar{u}ng-b\bar{a}-n\bar{e}-s-ang$ $\bar{a}t\bar{i}sm\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}kth\bar{u}ng-b\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, thou Limbu-being what-sort Limbu-art?

An adverbial participle is formed by adding $l\bar{e}$, $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, or $mel\bar{e}$; thus, $tukh\bar{e}$ $chy\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$, distress becoming; $t\bar{a}ndik$ $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $hip-\bar{a}$ - $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ $khen\bar{e}$ $t\bar{e}$, to-morrow he beats-me-when thou come, come thou to-morrow at the time when he is beating me; $mem\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ hip-tang- $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ $khen\bar{e}$ k'- $t\bar{e}$, yesterday when he was beating me thou camest; \bar{a} -set- $l\bar{u}k$ -me- $l\bar{e}$, my-hunger-getting-on, because I am hungering, (I die) from hunger; $khen\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{a}khen$ k'-hip- $t\bar{u}$ -m- $mel\bar{e}$ $ang\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ -neni-ng, I see you beating him.

It will be seen that the difference between $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ and $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ is that the latter is used after nasals. This form, which should be compared with the suffix $l\bar{e}$, $\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, $n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$, mentioned above under the head of nouns, is often used in conditional phrases; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $s\bar{\imath}ng$ $g\bar{o}t\bar{u}-ng-n\bar{\imath}l\bar{e}$ $ang\bar{a}$ him $ch\bar{o}k-m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}k-t\bar{u}-ng$, if I had wood I could build a house.

Negative verb.—The negative verb is formed from the positive one by prefixing meh and suffixing in, or, after vowels n. If the verb contains a pronominal prefix meh is replaced by en, n, or, before labials em, m, respectively, added to the prefix. The suffix in is replaced by nen if it is added immediately to the base; thus, $meh \ k\bar{o}-t\bar{u}-n$, he did not get anything; $meh-hip-\bar{a}-sing-in$, I do not beat myself; $ken-hip-\bar{a}-in$, thou art not beating me; $\bar{a}n-ken-hip-nen$, thou art not beating us.

Interrogative particle.—There is apparently an interrogative particle $g\bar{o}$; thus, $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$, who is it? $khen\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}t\bar{i}$ k'- $w\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}$, where do you dwell? $B\bar{e}$ can also be added; thus, $khen\bar{e}$ k'- $p\bar{e}g$ - $b\bar{e}$, goest thou? $kh\bar{u}n\bar{e}$ $p\bar{e}$ - $b\bar{e}$, did he go? In disjunctive questions $b\bar{i}$ is added to both members; thus, $khen\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}ch\bar{o}n$ $k\bar{a}\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{a}\bar{i}l\bar{e}$ $sark\bar{a}r$ - $e\bar{o}$ $y\bar{a}mb\bar{o}k$ k'- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{i}$ ken- $ch\bar{o}g\bar{u}$ -n- $b\bar{i}$, thou formerly ever-ever government-in work didst didst-not? have you ever served the government before or not?

Compound verbs.—Causals are sometimes formed by aspirating the initial consonant; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to fly; $ph\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to cause to fly. The usual way of forming causal verbs is, however, to add $p\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ or $y\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to the principal verb; thus, sem- $p\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}$, he caused them to kill; sep-k- $p\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $b\bar{a}n$, thou hast caused them to kill. The principal verb can be inflected as well, and $l\bar{o}$, $r\bar{o}$, is often interposed; thus, $ang\bar{a}$ $apn\bar{e}$ peg- \bar{a} -sing- $l\bar{o}$ $p\bar{a}ng$ -a-sing (or $y\bar{a}$ -n-a-sing), I cause myself to go; $ang\bar{a}$ $khen\bar{e}$ k' peg- $l\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{e}$ (or $-y\bar{a}n\bar{e}$), I cause thee to go; $kh\bar{u}nch\bar{i}$ $m\bar{e}m\bar{a}$ $khench\bar{i}$ - $nech\bar{i}$ k'- $p\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{o}$ k'- $m\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ - $tech\bar{i}$; they caused you two to go yesterday, etc.

Frequentatives are formed by adding $l\bar{o}$, $r\bar{o}$, followed by the verb $p\bar{o}t$ - $m\bar{a}$, to continue, to the various forms of the principal verb; thus, hip- $n\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{o}t$ - $n\bar{e}$, I am continuing to beat thee. The past tense of $p\bar{o}t$ - $m\bar{a}$ is $p\bar{o}t$ - $ch\bar{e}$ which is regularly inflected.

Desideratives are formed by adding $k\bar{o}$ followed by the inflected auxiliary $l\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be, to the inflected principal verb; thus, hip- $t\bar{u}ng$ - $k\bar{o}$ -k'- $l\bar{o}$, thou art wishing to beat him; chang- $k\bar{o}$ - $l\bar{o}$, he wanted to eat.

An inceptive is formed by adding the various forms of $ch\bar{o}g$ - $m\bar{a}$, to do, to the verbal noun ending in $m\bar{a}$; thus, $p\bar{e}g$ - $m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{o}g$ - \bar{a} -sing, I begin to go. By adding the various forms of $k\bar{o}t$ - $m\bar{a}$, to be ready, to this form or to the inflected principal verb, a compound is formed which means 'to be about,' 'to be ready' to accomplish the action indicated by the principal verb; thus, hip- $m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{o}g$ - \bar{u} -ng $k\bar{o}t$ - \bar{u} -ng, I am ready to beat him.

Potentials and completives are formed by adding $s\bar{u}k-m\bar{a}$, to be able, and $s\bar{u}t-m\bar{a}$, to finish, respectively, to the verbal noun ending in $m\bar{a}$; thus, $hip-m\bar{a}$ $k's\bar{u}k-\bar{a}$, thou canst beat me; $hip-m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}-r-\bar{u}$, he is finishing beating me.

Note finally the particle $m\bar{u}$ in forms such as $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{u}$, he went it is said; hip- $t\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $m\bar{u}$, they beat they say. $M\bar{u}$ can be compared with Sanskrit kila, etc.

A more detailed account of Limbu grammar, from the pen of Major Senior, will be published in the near future. Till then the student is referred for further details to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable for which I am indebted to Major Senior. The same gentleman has also been good enough to correct the worst mistakes in the remaining two specimens and in the list of Standard Words and Phrases which is printed on pp. 408 and ff. The original list was kindly prepared for the purposes of this Survey by the Nepal Darbar. The second specimen is a comparatively correct rendering of the Parable in the dialect of the Fāgūrāī Limbus, which has been received from Darjeeling. The third specimen, which has been kindly forwarded by the Nepal Darbar, is a version of the Parable in the dialect of the Tamarkhōlēā sept of Limbus. It contains several mistakes, and it has not been possible to correct them all.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

FEDOPIA DIALECT.

(Major H. A. R. Senior, I.S.C., 1905.)

LÕCHĀ SĀ SAMPĀTĪ KĒ-CHA-BĀ. CERTAIN SON PROPERTY EATER.

nechi wāyechī (or wāyāsi). mānaī-lē (or yāmī-lē) kū-sā Lochā (were). tvoowere (man-to)his-sons man-to Certain phō-bā-lē (or phōwā-bā-lē) 'a-m-bē, kū-m-pā (or -bā) mētū. Hekiang his-father said-to-him, 'my-father-O, youngest-by (youngest-by) Then (or pi-r-ang-ne). tephun chiā (or jiā) ā-lōk tēkā-ā ā-hā-tē kōn (give-to-me).' I-will-get to-us-divide inheritance which my-share thiskhūn-chī-īn (or kak) (or sāmā-pūmā) sāmā-hā Khūn-chī pā-rē kerek them-to (property) all(all)properties Their father-by hā-tūsī. Tāndīk-āchindān khūnē-ang) (or khune-ang To-morrow-day-after-to-morrow divided-to-them. him-also) (him-also kū-jīkokwā phōwā-bā kū-sā-lē khōp-sū-ang (or thi-yan-ni-yan) having-taken-up his-son-by his-things (one-day-two-days) youngest pē (or pēgā, or pēgē). Khennā māngkhā pāngphē-yō kū-ching-ang There distantcountry-into went. carrying-on-his-back Khūne jūā kerek kū-jīkōkwā chāh-r-ang lep-tū-tē-sū. kē-rē-ang Пe his-things gamblingplaying threw-gave. $having\hbox{-}arrived$ all $_{
m meh}$ kőkēlē thī-ang-thī-ang chāh-tū-tē-sū-ang kerek kū-jīkōkwā jūā not anything gambling played-given-having then allhis-things Khūnē pāngphē-yō yombā (or pogē). pokhe kökēlē khen sāk kötü'-n He(arose).country-in famine becamehad-not then that severe pāngphē-yō kē-yūng-bā lāk-lō-wā. Khūnē khen kü-set kŏkĕlē sitter got-continually-is. country-in Hethat his-hunger then kē-yūng-bā khūnē Khen sēōtē pōk-hē-āng la-sē. thik lēō himinhabitant become-having entered. That withservant ōme-chē kom-sē kū-pārihē-yō (or pārihā-yō, or -mō) phāk watching-for his-fields-into swine feeding-for kōm-sē phākā (or phāk-hā) pāng-sū (or pang-khū). Khen sēōtē-lē feeding-for swinesent-him. That servant-by chōgū-kōtū chā-mā kū-set lāk-tē-ang phāk chān-īn te-rū-sī-ang made-was-ready to-eat foodhis-hunger got-having taken-them-having swine chā-ma kī-rū-sī-rū-ang phāk-hā-ren kū-n-tangben (or chang-kolo), kōrō to-eat feared-having butswine-of their-master (to-eat-wanted), 2 Q VOL. III, PART I.

i-tũ kō-tū meh-sük-tü'-n. Kokele kū-ningwā mek-mek tūm-sē-ang was-ready thoughtnot-was-able. Then his-mind little-littlevisited-having khā-khā-bā k'-him-mõ sapōk sēōtē-hā khūnchī pā-tū, 'a-m-pā-rē, sidat 'my-father-O, belly full-full said, thy-house-in many servants their köyö-nü ā-set-lāk-melē sīā-kōtā. Angā chā-mā mē-khō-sū, angā kōyō here-from I my-hunger-getting dying-am. to-eatthey-receive, \boldsymbol{I} herea-m-pā-ren a-m-pā (-rō) kū-him-mō pēkā-ang pōkā-ang my-father (-to)my-father-of his-house-in gone-having arisen-having a-m-pā-ren "a-m-bē, Bhagwan-nule nīsoro tāchek-tūng, will-say-to-him-I, "my-father-O, God-from my-father-of presence nāshtā kē-chōk-pā-ā. Angā vāng-nū k'-nīsōrō sõhmā chog-ang angā evildoer-am. now-from thy-presence sindone-having meh-met-ang-ninē. K'-him-mō umbāh yāmbōk k'-sā meh-lō-an, not-am. not-call-me-thou. Thy-house-in thuswork thy-son chōk-ang-ē." Kōkēlē kē-chōk-pā pogā-ang kū-m-pā-rēō kū-bēsang doermake-me." Then arisen-having his-father-to of-him-near tīā (or tīē). Māngkhā kū-m-pā-rē ne-su-ang wāyē-sang kū-sā-n Far seen-him-having went. being his-father-by his-son kū-m-pā-rē sēn-nē-sū-ang kū-bēsang lōk-tē: tem-nechī-ang of-him-near his-father-by recognized-him-having ran; embraced-they-two-having kū-sā-lē ang nām-nechī nām-sū nām-sû; khūn-chī nēdeng-nē-mō smelt-they-two smelt-himhis-son-by alsosmelt-him; cheeks-two-on they **c**hūmā chā-nechī. Kōkēlē ītū-bānēbā, jastõ chūkben kū-ningwā-mō kū-sā ate-they-two. Then thought-had, kissashis-mind-in his-son youngest ālō kū-m-pā tāchēk-tū. Kū-m-pā-rē kū-seote-hā mētūsī his-father (-to) now he-told-him. His-father-by his-servants he-said-to-them ' harā-harā kak-bhandā nōbā-nōbā tēt-hā chak-te-mē; lote-mē-ang 'quick-quick all-among good-good clothes taken-out-having put-on-ye; kū-hūk-chūgō-khemō angūtī wā-te-mē, kū-lang-hēyō lang-kōpā chak-te-mē; his-hand-fingers-on ring put-on-ye, his-legs-upon shoes put-on-ye; kē-lō-ben ōrūp-lūp böhör-en phe-te-mē-ang se-rē-mē, se-rē-mé-ang fat being heifer brought-you-having kill-it-ye. killed-it-ye-having chā-mā hēkīang anī anī sīrā thiang-phelē kōn thang, \bar{a} -s \bar{a} -n should-eat then wemerry become. because thismy-son sīā-(kōtē-)bān (or -men), kōkēlē kē-hing-bā pokhē; kē-mā-ben-wā, khōdying-(about-) was, then living became; iost-was, found-Kōkēlē \mathbf{kak} khūnchī sū-ng.' $s\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}$ thang-nie. him-I.' Then allthey came-up.

Ků-sā tūm-ben songwārō-mō wāyē. Songwārō-rōnū (or mōnū) khūnē eldest His-son fields-in was. Fields-in-from he ku-hīm-bēsēō (or bēsang) thang-ang kēr-lō-kōtē-lē $\underline{\mathtt{gana}}$ hīm-mō his-house-near come-up-having to-arrive-about-being house-in singing LIMBU. 299

khep-sung.[!] Sēōtē thik mē-lāk-hē-mūk-tē-bān tū-ang bājā Servant he-heard. one summoned-having they-dancing-playing-were music mē-lāng-bē? mē-mūkū, thiang ' kōn thēbě? thiang sēlāp-tūng, [!] this what? whythey-play, why they-dancing-are?' he-asked-him, 'k'-nūsā kē-mā-ben tāchek-tū, kŭ-m-pā-rē Sēōtē-lē 'thy-younger-brother the-lost-one he-said-to-him, his-father-by Servant-by tāh-rū, ānī-gē sīrā thang-ang кū-m-pā-rē khūnchī khō-sū-ang gladcome-having brought-him, wehis-father-by themfound-him-having bājā műng-khûsī. Kū-m-pā-rē läng-päng-khūsi, gānā orūp-lūp music made-them-play. His-father-by to-dance-caused-them, singing fattened kē-lō-ben böhören phe-te-me-ang sem-pang-khūsī. Kū-m-pā-rē kõn to-kill-caused-them. the-being-one heifer brought-having His-father-by this (or chog-pang-khūsī), chōgū-bā(n) vāmbōk-īn kak thiang-phele done-has (to-do-caused-them), work allbecause k'nūsā men-dūk-hē-men-chak-hē khō-sū.' Kū-sā tūmbē-lē not-ill he-found-him.' thy-younger-brother His-son elder-by kū-yāk lērē kū-hīm-bēsang khep-sū-ang thang-mā meh-ten-nen. heard-it-having his-anger got-loose his-house-near to-come-up not-wanted. \mathbf{K} ū- \mathbf{m} - \mathbf{p} ã kōt-nānak phērē-ang kū-sā-n tūm-bā hēkīang ūtū. His-father this-side come-having his-son eldestthenhe-called-him. 'ömēt-ang-ē, Khūnė kū-m-pā-reō pān sīlāp-tū, kōn yārik töngbē Hespeechhe-asked, 'look-to-me-thou, his-father-to theseso-many years. khep-sū-ng (or tend-ang); k'-bēsang wayang; k'-pān k'-yāmbök chōgū-ng. heard-I thee-near was-I;thy-speech (obeyed-I); thy-work did-I. Kāīlē-rang nāshtā men-chōg-pā. \mathbf{K} ōr $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ mendak-sa thik ken-pi-rang-nen (or -nin), Ever evilnot-doer. Butgoat-young thou-gavest-me-not, oneĀlō jāsorī a-n-dingbā-hā chājā-tūng-sing. k'-sā chūk-pen tē-ang, so-that my-friends feast-them-I. Nowthy-son younger come-having, chīā k'-jīkōkwā-hā lep-tū tē-sū-bān, khenē khūnē k'-tāh-rūwhothy-substance threwgiven-away-has, thouhim thou-brought-himböhören chīā khenē k'-hing-khū ang khūnē kū-lagī ālō his-sake-for heifer which thou thou-didst-care-for-it having henow khūnē sep-k'-pāng-khūsī-bān.' Kū-m-pā-rē 'ā-sā-ē. mētū, to-kill-thou-caused-them-hast.' His-father-by himhe-said-to-him, 'my-son-O, khenē ā-bēsang sode-phore k'-wā; chīā angā-ō kē-wā-ben (or -pān), thoume-with always thou-art; whatmine remains. khenē-īn. Sīrā thang-ang sõsō-lālang chōg-mā nō-bā, thiang-phelē kõn thine. Merry become-having festivity. to-dogood, because this k'-nūsă hing-ā; sīā-bān, ālō khūnē kē-mā-ben, āłō yang-phērī thy-younger-brother died-had. now lives; he lost-one-was, now again khō-sū-ng-bān.' found-him-I-have.'

[No. 28.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

FĀGŪRĀĪ DIALECT.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

thik-lē nechchhi waye-sī. Khom-bheng Yāp-mi ku-sā pāk-pā-lē Man his-sons twoThen one-of were. younger-by 'a-m-bē, chiā tōk-mā kē-wā-ben, pātū, angā įō khō-sū-ng-ben, Ι 'my-father-O, which property existing, whichspoke, got-I-will-have. Khom-bheng khollē pīrang-nē.' āphnā angā tōk-men phōk-sū give-me-thou.' Then him-by own property dividedMūrē meh-yüngē-n phōkwā-bā kāk pī-ra-sī. sā tē-rū-ang mūrē Long-time not-he-sat younger gave-to-them. allsontaken-having far Khōm-bheng pēgē. khōtnā ku-yāng lājē-mē ku-sā kāk taphembā went. Then therehis-rupees kingdom-into his-pice allbadmān-dū-tē-sū. Khōm-bheng khōn chōgū-ang mān-dū-tēfinished-eating-gave-away. Then finished-eating-gavedone-having he khōm-bheng khen lājē-hep-mō vombā sak pogé. Khōn sū, yangthatkingdom-in famine arose. then bigaway, rupees-Khōm-bheng khōn pēgē-ang khen pēgē. kē-yūng-bā-hep-mō sā-ru Then went. hegone-having thosepice-with residents-in Khen chōgu. him-tang-ba-le thik-hep-mō yūng-mā ku-bārī-hep-mō That house-master-by to-reside made (began). one-with his-fields-into pāng-sū. Khōm-bheng khellē phāk köchhē khen ku-sip-hā chīā sent-him. Then to-care-for him-by thoseswine his-husks which sāppōk thim-mā chōbā-hā āphnā ītū. phāk-lē Khōn atī-lē-ang own belly Himwere-eating to-fill he-wanted. swine-by anyone-by mem-pī-rū-n-lō. Khāllē ku-ningwā sērū-ang khōm-bheng théang Thereupon not-they-gave-him. his-mind killed-having anything then'ām-bā-rē pātū, yollik vāmbōk kē-chōk-pā khellē khon-hā-rē yollik 'my-father-of doersspoke, many workhim-by them-by muchmē-gottū, thik-legō angā köyö khoreng sak-lē sivang. Angā they-have-got, I butherebreadfamine-by I-died. I ā-m-bā hep-mō pēkā, khōm-bheng khũnē pok-a-ang hep-mō pātū-ng, arising my-father will-go, him to will-speak-I, Tāng-sāng-bā-lē serāb-mēt-ang-bā "vē ā-m-bē, angā khom-bheng khenē my-father-O, I Heaven-by " O cursed-me-has then thau

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k'-sā $s\bar{o}hm\bar{a}$ k'-nīsōrō chōgū-ng. Angā allō āphā-ang pā-mā memdid-I. Methy-sight-in sinnow thy-son in-any-way to-say theypong-racheng (sic) kē-chōk-pā pök-sang. Angā khenē k'-yām-bōk thik-le Methy-work not-becoming $became \cdot I.$ thou doerone-of phochang-e.", Khom-bheng khōn pōg-ē-ang ku-m-bā ku-sing hep-mo likeput-me-to-work.", Then he arisen-having his-father toku-m-bā-rē nē-sū-ang pēg-ē. Thik-legō khōn mūrē yūng-ē, ku-lung-mā went. Buthe far sat. his-father-by seen-him-having his-liver ku-nēteng-bā tūkhē. khōm-bheng lok-te-yue-ang hep-mō thenrun-come-down-having his-cheek onpained, Ku-sā-lē phon-chhing-hang khōn-in chūp-mētū. khūnē mētū, 'yē embraced-having that-one kissed·him. His-son-by him said-to-him, '0 Tängsäng-bä-lē serāb ām-bē, mēt-ang-bān, khōm-bheng \mathbf{k} henē k'-nisōrō Heaven-by cursesaid-to-me-has, my-father, then thouthy-sight-in chōgū-ng. āphāang sõhmā $A \, \mathrm{ng} ar{\mathbf{a}}$ allō k'-sā mem-pong-ra-cheng-pok-sang. did-I. in-any-way not-becoming-became.' sinnow thy-son Allōgō ku-m-bā-lē ku-yāmbōk-kē-chōk-pā hep-mö mētū-sī, his-work-doers Now his-father-by tohe-said-to-them, nō-bā tēt ' kāp-mang-bhandā lo-te-ang khūnē chāk-tē: 'all-in-from goodclothes taken-out-having himput-on-thou; khōm-bheng ku-huk-khēyō suwākep khōm-bheng ku-lāng-hēyō jutā wā-tē. his-hand-on then ringthen his-feet-on shoes put. Khom-bheng kē-sō-bā pīt-chhechhā sē-rē; ānī chā-mā sirā thāng-lōfattedThen cow-young kill; weshould-eat merry becomingthi-ang-phelē kön yūng-i; angā ā-sā siā-khērē-ang, yāng-mō becauseshould-sit; this of-me my-son dead-having-been, again mā-ē-ang, hing-ē; yāng-mō khōmenā.' Khōm-bheng khen-hā lost-having-been, revived; againwe-found-him. Then they ningwā-tē-rō mē-yūng-ē. heart-came they-sat.

ku-sa tōm-bā Khūnē pīyāng-sī-yō yūng-ē. Khōm-bheng thāng-ē eldesthis-son rice-fields-in Of-him sat. Then came-up ku-him khōm-bheng pokhē. pēs-mō kērē, kē-mē-hip-tū his-house near became, arrived, drum-they-were-beating thenmē-rākh-sē-bā mukten khep-sū. Khōm-bheng ku-kām-kē-chōk-pā khellē they-dancing-were sound he-heard. Then him-by his-work-doers hep-mō thik ku-bēs-mō ūtū-ang thē-bē?' sendō-sū. 'kōn Khōllē among of-him-near called-having asked-him, 'this what-is? Him-by 'khenē khūnē $\mathbf{k'}$ -nūsā mētū. tā-ē-ang wā. said-to-him. him'of-thee thy-younger-brother come-having is-present. Khōm-bhāang khenē kem-bā-lē kē-sō-bā pit-chhechhā sē-rū, Therefore 1 and 1 of-thee thy-father-by futted cow-young killed-it.

khō-sū.' khūnē nūmā-tāmā Thik-lego kholle ku-vāk thiang-phelle safe-and-sound he-found-him.' because himButhim-by his-anger khōm-bheng him hōk-se-mū Khōn lerē. lāp-mā meh-tendē-n. then houseintoto-enter Thatnot-obeyed. got-loose, khūnē ku-m-bā hep-mö pākhā phērē-ang khūnē ing-lāp-mā pān inof-him his-father outside come-having him to-entreat *conversation* Khollē ku-m-bā mētū. chögü. 'omet-tē, angā akhen tong year**s** made (began). Him-byhis-father said-to-him, see, I how-many k'-sēwā pē-ang khenē chōgū-ng. Khen-basang khenē k'-pan-nin did-I. of-thee thy-service Yetof-thee thy-word gone-having angā medoang (?). Khōm-bāsang khenē ānāmāng (?) thik chuk-pā-sā thik not-broke-I. Yetthoume ever one small-young one ā-n-chum-ā-sibā-hā-nū sirā thang-lo-chogu-ng. kem-bī-yang [-in], my-friends-my-people-with merry thou-didst-not-give-me, become-continually-did-I. kon k'-sā-n ketnī-mā-hā-nū k'-sā chōkhenē k'-yāng Thik-legō this thy-son harlots-with Butof-thee thy-rupees thy-pice devouredkhōm-bhelē khenē tāē-mennē khollē [ku-] lāgī kē-sō-bā pīttē-sū buthim-of thou his-sake-for fattedcowgave-away coming Ku-m-bā-lē khōn ʻ yē khenë k'-sē-rū.' mētū, ā-sā-ē, **c**hhe**c**hhā ' O $oldsymbol{His}$ -father-by that-one said-to-him, my-son-O, killedest.' thouyoung Jō kē-wā-ben angā-īn, k'-wā. kāk khenē-īn. Thik-legō chuguh angā-nū Whatbeing mine, Buttogetherart.allthine. me-with wā-ē, thiang-phellē yūng·mā kōn khenē k'-nū-sā siri-thang-lo because to-sit is, thisof-thee thy-younger-brother merry-becoming yūng-ē, yāng-mō hing-ē; māē-khe-rē. yāng-mō khōmenā.' siyang revived; lost-entirely-was, sat, again againwe-found-him.' having-died

[No. 29.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

LIMBU.

TAMARKHÖLĒĀ DIALECT.

(NEPAL.)

phōbā-lē, yāmi thik-lē $nechh\bar{i}$ ku-sā wēyē-chhī. Nechhi-vō Lochhā Two-in younger-by, one-to twohis-sons were-they. Some pomparně (sic) ansa-bhāg, pī-rang-nē,' mē-tū-lē chyō 'a-m-bā-rē, give-me-thou,' said-to-him-when I-should-get share, 'my-father-O, whichansa-bhāg pī-rang. Hekiang tandik hellē phōbā-lē a-m- $b\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$ gave-to-me. that-by Thenafterwards younger-b**y** my-father-by share māngkhā pardēs pē-mū. kāk yāng-sā sup-sū khōp-sū other-country went-it-is-said. gatheredtook-up far allmoney-goods mān-dū. Māhēkhu (sic) möj-sanga-khungā ku-yāng-ku-sā kāk merriment-with his-money-his-goods allfinished-eating. There chōgū-mān-dū-ang hen thāw-ēö vom-bā pokhā, Kharcha Expenditure done-eating-finished-having that place-in heavy famine happened, chiā-lē thāw-ēō lōchhā thik-lē pē-ang hellē tükhē hen manuā gone-having one-to him-to distressbecoming thatplace-at mansahar-bāsi-lē pāng-khū. wē-yā. Hen pyāngsī-ō phāk kōm-sē Thatsent-him. grazing-for he-was-present. city-dweller-by rice-field-in swineThik-lang the-ang Hellē chō-bān khalung-lang mem-bī-rū-n. phāk-len husks-with Anyone-by they-not-gave-him. foodanything Thosepigs-of pā-tū-mē-tū, 'angā ā-sakpō khā-khā-bā. Chēt-pa-chōg-ang meh-yō-sū-n, said-spoke, not-sufficed, 'Imy-belly filled.' Sense-making mē-mān-dū-lē 'a-m-bā-rē-mō ku-chākarē lōtō mē-jō-ang they-finished-eating-while 'my-father-of-in his-servants breadthey-eaten-having pekā-ang, "am-bē, set-lāk-melē angā sīāng. Angā a-m-bā-rēõ "father-O, I am-dying. I going, hunger-getting my-father-near · ā-sū-ē ' chōgū-ng, Bhagwān-nū Angā henē-nū pāp pāp chōgū-ng. `my-son-O' I thee-from sindid-I, God-from sindid-I. chōg-ang-ē," mēmang-swāb-mē-jukāi (sic). k'-tarmāīdār Angā-in henē make-me," I-am-not-worthy-to-be-called. Methy-servant thou yörik mē-tū-ng.' pēgang a-m-bä-rē-pōk (sic)Pogang henē (sic)gone-having verywill-say-to-him-I.' Having-arisen my-father-near thou lōkdūkā, pharāk wē-yang ku-m-bā-rē ku-lung-mā nē-sū-ang runpained, far been-having his-liver his-father-by seen-him-having

Ku-sā-lē nām-sū. hep-tū-ang tang ku-ning-mā-yō pēg-ang smelt-him. His-son-by embraced-having his-neck-on having gone-having mukhyānjī Bhagwan-nū henē-nū ' hē a-m-bē. ku-m-bā mētū, before my-father-O, God-from thee-from · 0 his-father he-said-to-him, "ā-sā-ē" mēt-mā meh-laek-lo.' Tara chōg-ū-ng. henē Angā pāp worthy-am-not.' But"my-son-O" to-say did-I. Methou sin'nōb tēt thāk-tē-mēk'-chākarē-hā k'-mētūsī, a-m-bā-rē henē ' good clothesfrom-belowsaidst-to-them, my-father-by thou thy-servants kõl-lē ku-huk-khēyō anguti wā-te-mē, ku-lang-hā-vō ang put-on-ye, his-feet-on this-one-to his-hand-palms-on ring brought-ye-having chōgī. Thi-ang-pha-le wā-te-mē. Ānī chā-mā thung-ma mōj merriment should-make. Because to-eatto-drinkput-on-ye. Weshoes phērī mai-bēbān-nin, phērī khōm-menā.' \bar{a} -s \bar{a} sīā-bēbān, hingā; kon this my-son dead-has-been, againalive-is; lost-has-been, againfound-was.' Hēkiang hen-hā-rē hun-chhī $ar{sira}$ thăngā. their pleasure came. them-by Then

Nökh-phērā pyāngsī-ō wē-yā. him Hellē ku-sā tūm-bān He-returned-he-came elderfield-in was. house Him-of his-son bājā-nu-lāng khep-sū. Chākarē lochhā-thik ū-tū-ang kērā bēsang he-heard. Servant some-one called-having music-and-dance arrivednear ku-yam-tuk-mā-sāk-mā ke-m-bā-'k'-nū-sā te-ang selāp-tū-lē, 'thy-younger-brother come-having ${\it his-body-safe-and-sound}$ thy-fatherasked-when, Hellē thik chōgū,' chākarē-lē mētū. ku-yāk lerē. bhōj ${f re}$ did. servant-by said-to-him. Him-of his-anger feast one loosed. byHellē ku-m-bā pākhā phērā-ang lēmū-thuptū. bhitra meh-pē-n. Him-of his-father outsidecome-having entreated-him. not-went. inside' kön ku-bān nōk-tū, yārīk barkha-pōkhā Ku-m-bā-rē henē he-gave-back, his-word ' these His-father-to many years-became thou k'-bān men-khem-bē-bān? chōgū-ng. Kaile-yang k'-chākar Aphālang did-I. Ever-even thy-word have-I-not-listened-to? thy-service Everā-n-ding-bhā-nū mōj chōg-mā lōchhā bhērā henē $s\bar{a}$ thikā angā my-friends-with merriment to-make somesheep childthou \boldsymbol{I} onekem-pi-rang-nen. Bēsyā-nū sampati kē-chā-pā kōn k'-sān tāi-mennī, thou-gavest-not-to-me. Harlots-with property eater thisthy-son coming-on, hellē ku-lāgī bhōj kē-chōg-pā-nē.' Tara hellē a-m- $b\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$ henē him-of his-sake-for feastdoer-art.' Then him-of thoumy-father-by ' hē ā-sā-ē. henē sadhai angā-nū-sōrik k'-wā; mētū, angā chiamy-son-O, said-to-him, 60 thoualways me-with art; I what kōtū-ng-bān kāk henē-in-bā. Harkha-bhōj chōg-mā nō-bā; thiang-phale possessed-I-have thine-is. Joy-feast allto-make good; because k'-nū-sā sīā-bān. hing-tē: mai-bē-bān-in, kon ā-khō-sūm.' thy-younger-brother died-has, lost-had-been, we-found-him.' lived; this

YĀKHĀ.

The Yākhās are a small tribe who are found in the same localities as the Limbus, i.e. between the Arun River and the Singilela range. They are not numerous. Most of them are found in Chainpur. There are also small settlements in Darjeeling and Sikkim, and at the last Census of 1901, Yākhās were also returned from Assam.

No estimates are available about the number of speakers in Nepal. According to information collected for the purposes of this Survey the dialect was spoken by 1,250 individuals in Darjeeling. At the last Census of 1904, Yākhā was returned from the following districts:—

Bengal a	nd feu	dator	ies			•								1,251
Jalp	aiguri		•	•	v								6 3	,
Dar	jeeling		•				•						i.123	
Sik	kim	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	•			65	
\mathbf{Assam}	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•				115
											\mathbf{T}	OTAL	•	1.366

According to Sir Herbert Risley, the tribe call themselves yak-thomba or yakherds, with reference to the tradition that this was their characteristic occupation before they crossed the Himalaya into Eastern Nepal. Compare the denomination $y\bar{a}k$ -thūng-bā which the Limbus apply to themselves. Hodgson, on the other hand, is inclined to identify the Yākhās with the Yakkhas mentioned in the Mahāvamsa as living in the Himālayas.

The Yākhās, like the Jimdārs, use the honorific title Rāi to denote themselves.

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Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from Darjeeling. The handwriting in the list was so bad that some passages could not be restored with certainty. Such cases have been indicated by adding a query within parenthesis.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u may be either long or short. The long and short sounds, however, sometimes interchange in the same word, e.g. in the plural suffix $ch\bar{i}$ or chi. It is therefore possible that Yākhā agrees with Tibetan in not possessing really long vowels.

E and $y\bar{a}$ are sometimes interchanged; thus, $T\bar{a}ngkheng$ and $T\bar{a}ngkhy\bar{a}ng$, heaven.

There are four gutturals, viz.: k, kh, g, and gh. The dialect also possesses corresponding sets of palatals, dentals, and labials, and probably also of cerebrals.

Ch interchanges with j and z in the plural suffix $ch\bar{\iota}$, ji or zi.

Concurrent consonants are sometimes assimilated; thus, $k\bar{a}m$ -me instead of $k\bar{a}m$ -be, on work; hip- $p\bar{a}ng$ and hichchi, two; ten, village, but tem-be, in the village; ung-khi, vol. III, PART I.

you, but $om-b\bar{a}-g\bar{a}$, your father's. It is not, however, possible to give any definite rules about the matter, the practice of the specimens being too inconsistent.

We have no information about the use of tones and accent. The visarga which occurs in words such as $nuh-n\bar{a}$, small, probably denotes the abrupt tone. The same is the case with the sign 'in Hodgson's list in words such as ap'tu, bring; $y\bar{u}k'su$, put down, and so forth.

Prefixes.—The prefixes \bar{a} , i, and u are of common occurrence; thus, \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, my father; i- $chchy\bar{a}$ and u- $chchy\bar{a}$, his son. \bar{A} is originally the possessive pronoun of the first person, and i and u the corresponding forms of the third person. Compare om- $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$ u- $b\bar{a}ng$ -be, your father-of his-house-in, in your father's house.

A similar use of prefixed personal pronouns is common in connected languages. For instance, it forms a very prominent feature of Limbu and of the so-called Kuki-Chin group.

Article.—There are no articles. The numeral ikko, one, is, however, often used with the meaning of an indefinite article; thus, ikko $y\bar{a}p$ - $m\bar{i}$, a man.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying affixes. Thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: on, horse; on i- $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$, mare: pik, bull; pik- $m\bar{a}$, cow: $kuchum\bar{a}$, dog, $kutim\bar{a}$, bitch: $ipp\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, male goat; $im\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, female goat: $kiss\bar{a}$ darhe, male deer; $kiss\bar{a}$ $um\bar{a}$, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The usual suffix of the plural is chi or zi; thus, $b\bar{a}$ -chi, fathers; on-zi, horses.

Case.—There are no separate suffixes to indicate the subject of intransitive verbs or the object. In $k\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ uchchy \bar{a} -go mok-tu- $ng\bar{a}$, I have beaten his son, we apparently have a dative-accusative formed by adding go.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix $ng\bar{a}$. Thus, $p\bar{a}k-n\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$ $lu-n\bar{a}$, younger-by said, the younger said. The same suffix is also used to denote the instrument; thus, $s\bar{a}k-ng\bar{a}$, from hunger.

The suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is closely related to the suffix $g\bar{a}$, which is used to form genitives; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, of a father. Instead of $g\bar{a}$ we find $ng\bar{a}$ in words such as \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, of my uncle; $\bar{a}ni$ - $ng\bar{a}$, our. In such forms the initial consonant of the genitive suffix has perhaps coalesced with a preceding ng; compare $\bar{a}ning$, we. The governed noun is sometimes repeated before the governing noun by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, om- $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$ u- $b\bar{a}ng$ -be, your-father's his-house-in, in your father's house.

There is no proper suffix of the dative; compare $k\bar{a}$ $piy\bar{a}ng$, me (-to) give. Hodgson mentions a suffix \bar{a} . It does not occur in the specimens, but is perhaps contained in the example ikko metnyung- $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $chiy\bar{a}$, to a daughter, in the list, though the initial \bar{a} in \bar{a} - $chiy\bar{a}$ can also be the pronominal prefix.

The locative-terminative is formed by adding be to the base or to the genitive; thus, $r\bar{a}j\bar{i}$ -be, in a country; tem-be, to the village. Note $k\bar{a}m$ -me instead of $k\bar{a}m$ -be, on work.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are bhandā, from; $b\bar{a}ng$, $bang\bar{a}$, $bong\bar{a}$, bung, bohung, bohung, hobung, hunu, from, out of; dekhi, from; hebe, to, towards; $heks\bar{a}ng$ -be, at the back of, behind; keng, near; $l\bar{a}gi$, for the sake of; nu, nung, nuhung, with; nuhmug, out of; $s\bar{a}mne$, before, etc.

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Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the words they qualify. They commonly end in $h\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}$; thus, nu- $n\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}p$ -mi, a good man; nu- $h\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}p$ -mi-chi, good men. I do not know if it is more than a mere chance that the suffix $h\bar{a}$ in the list is used before plural nouns, while $n\bar{a}$ is used in the singular. Compare the plural suffix $h\bar{a}$ in Limbu.

The particle of comparison is apparently the Aryan bhandā; thus, $n\bar{a}$ -bhandā-cha ket-nā, anyone-from high, highest; $k\bar{a}k$ bhandā nu-nā, all from good, best. The writing of the list was so bad that No. 231 could not be restored with certainty.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The suffix chi, ji, which is added to most numerals, is perhaps identical with the plural suffix chi. In hip- $p\bar{a}ng$ nu- $h\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}p$ -mi-chi, two good men, we apparently have a generic particle $p\bar{a}ng$. Higher numbers appear to be counted in twenties; compare hi-bong hichchi nga i-bong, twenties two and ten, fifty.

Pronouns—It has already been remarked that short forms of the personal pronouns are used as prefixes with the meaning of possessive pronouns. The following occur, \bar{a} , my; in, un, thy; i, u, his. Compare \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, my father; in-ning, thy name; $omb\bar{a}$, i.e. un- $b\bar{a}$, thy father; u- $g\bar{a}$ i- $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, him-of his-father-by, by his father; \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ $chiy\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$ u- $bih\bar{a}$ u- $ng\bar{a}$ -nu $leks\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, me-of my-uncle's son-of his-marriage his-sister-with occurred, the son of my uncle is married to his sister. Om in om- $b\bar{a}$, thy father, has been derived from un under the influence of the following b.

The prefixed pronouns are the shortest forms of the full bases. Compare \bar{a} -ning and $k\bar{a}$ -ni, we; \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$, my; \bar{a} , prefix of the first person.

The most common forms of the personal pronouns will be found in the table which follows:—

$k ilde{a}$, I.	ing-khi, thou.	<i>i-khi, u-khi</i> , he.
$k\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, by me.	ing-khi-ngā, ung-	u - khi - $ng\bar{a}(ng)$, by him.
$ ilde{a} ext{-}gar{a},\ ar{a} ext{-},\ ext{my}.$	khi-ngā, by thee. ingā, ungā, ing-khi- gā, ung-khi-gā, in-,	<i>i-gā</i> , <i>u-gā</i> , <i>i-</i> , <i>u-</i> , his.
ā-ning, kā-ni, we.	thy. ing-khi(-ni), in-ning- khik, you.	n-jing-khi, ikhā-zi, they.
ā-ni-ngā, kā-ni-ngā, by us.	ing-khi-ngā, by you.	u - ji - khi - $ng\bar{a}$, by them.
\bar{a} -ning \bar{a} , our.	ingā, your.	$u ext{-}jing ilde{a}$, their.

The suffix khi or khik in ing-khi, thou; i-khi, he, etc., is probably a demonstrative pronoun. It is sometimes also added to the pronoun of the first person; thus, \bar{a} -ning-khi, we. The suffixes of the plural are ni or ning, and ji or jing, and zi. The latter suffix is the same as that used with nouns.

Other pronouns of the third person are $hitn\bar{a}$, he; $hunn\bar{a}$, he; and according to Hodgson, $khen\bar{a}$, $yon\bar{a}$, $mon\bar{a}$, and $ton\bar{a}$, he. They can all be used as demonstrative pronouns. Other demonstratives are $n\bar{a}$, this; ni, this; yo, that; u, that; inu, that; $i-kh\bar{a}$, those, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are *i-sā*, who? *i*, *i-jeti*, *i-lā*, what? hene, where? *in-khoi*, how much, how many? Indefinite pronouns are effected by adding $ch\bar{a}$ to interrogatives; thus, *i-sā-ngā-cha*, by anyone; *i-je-ti-chā*, anything; hene-chā, anywhere; kaile-chō, ever.

The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives; thus, $w\bar{a}kkhu$ - $w\bar{a}$ -be $is\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ u- $kh\bar{i}$ $p\bar{a}k$ -su- $n\bar{a}$, with a citizen who sent him; $jetik\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $g\bar{a}$ $waitn\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}k$ ung-khi- $g\bar{a}$, what mine is, all thine, all that is mine is thine. Such phrases are due to the influence of Aryan vernaculars. The Aryan relative jo is used in $kholt\bar{a}$ -be-hunu jo $ph\bar{a}k$ - $ch\bar{i}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ cho- $w\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, from the husks which the swine ate.

Verbs.—The verb is in all essential features a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which looks like a modified form of the genitive. The person of the subject is not regularly (distinguished in the verb. There are only some indications of a tendency to add affixes denoting the subject. Thus, a ng or $ng\bar{a}$ is sometimes added in the first, and a ka or ga in the second person. Compare $n\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ am; chugu- $ng\bar{a}$, I did; $n\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$, art; khek- $k\bar{a}$, goest. These affixes are inserted before the copula; thus, khem-me- $ng\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, going-in-I-am, I shall go; khem-me-ka- $n\bar{a}$, going-in-thouart, thou wilt go. This state of affairs agrees with the practice in Mundā languages. It is not, however, certain that $ng\bar{a}$ and ka are in reality personal affixes, our materials not being sufficient for settling the question. Compare u-jing-khik- $ng\bar{a}$ $mokk\bar{a}$, they beat.

The verb is also shown to be a noun by the fact that plural suffixes can be added. Thus, $cho-w\bar{a}-chi$, they ate; $wae-h\bar{a}-zi$, they were; $i-kh\bar{a}-zi$ $n\bar{a}e-kh\bar{a}$, they are; compare $i-kh\bar{a}$, those.

Verb substantive.—Several bases are used as a verb substantive. The most common ones are $n\bar{a}$, i, wai and wait, leng, $leks\bar{a}$, and so on. The base ho in $m\bar{a}$ -ho, is it not? is probably Aryan.

The materials available are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of the conjugation of the verb substantive, the more so because the bad handwriting of the list has made it impossible to arrive at certainty about the real form in all cases.

Finite verb.—The conjugation of finite verbs is apparently comparatively simple. It is not, however, possible to decide how far the actual state of affairs is represented in the texts.

Present time.—The base alone is sometimes used with the meaning of a present; thus, $k\bar{a}$ \bar{i} , I am; $k\bar{a}$ $khek-ng\bar{a}$, I go. The copula $n\bar{a}$, is, is often added; thus, wait- $n\bar{a}$, is; wai-ka- $n\bar{a}$, art.

Other forms of the present are apparently participles. A present participle ending in $w\bar{a}$, corresponding to Tibetan pa, is used in forms such as $yung-yung-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, sitting is, he is sitting; $hesu-w\bar{a}-ka-n\bar{a}$, able thou art.

Another suffix of a similar participle is $h\bar{a}$; compare the suffix $h\bar{a}$ used with adjectives. Thus, $wae-h\bar{a}-chi$, being-ones, they are; $\bar{a}-ning\ n\bar{a}-h\bar{a}-i$, we being are, we are.

A participle ending in me seems to occur in $yung-me-n\bar{a}$, he lives. The suffix me is perhaps connected with the locative suffix be.

The suffix tu is mok-tu, (he) beats, (you) beat; $mok-tu-g\bar{a}$, beatest, perhaps denotes an object of the third person. It has an m added in forms such as mok-tum, we beat; $tok-tum-n\bar{a}$, he is found; compare the suffix m which is used in several plural forms of the verb in Limbu.

Isolated forms are $n\bar{a}kk\bar{a}$, thou art; $khek-k\bar{a}$, thou goest; $mokk\bar{a}$, they beat; $n\bar{a}k\bar{u}$, you are; $n\bar{a}ekh\bar{a}$, they are; mokneng, I strike. They only occur in the list of words.

Past time.—Several of the forms mentioned above are also used with the meaning of a past. The base alone is apparently used in forms such as chugu-ngā, I did. The

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copula $n\bar{a}$ is commonly added; thus, $lu-n\bar{a}$, he said; $l\bar{a}m\bar{a}-ng-n\bar{a}$, I have walked; $khy\bar{a}-k\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, wentest. The suffixes $w\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$, and tu or du occur in forms such as $cho-w\bar{a}-chi$, they ate; $lu-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, he said; $t\bar{a}e-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, has come; $chuyu-w\bar{a}-ng-n\bar{a}$, I have done; $leks\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, occurred; $mok-tu-ng\bar{a}$, I have beaten; $sim-du-n\bar{a}$, he asked.

A suffix $s\bar{a}$, se occurs in forms such as wai- $s\bar{a}$ and wai- $s\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, was; lek- $s\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, lek-se- $n\bar{a}$, and lek- $sey\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, became. It also occurs in forms such as lek- $s\bar{a}$, be, and is perhaps the suffix of a past verbal noun or participle.

The suffix $s\bar{a}$ is perhaps connected with su, which is often used in order to form a past tense; thus, $lept\bar{a}-h\bar{a}k-su$, he had wasted; $p\bar{a}k-su-n\bar{a}$, he sent; si-suk-su-no, killedest; $tok-tu-su-n\bar{a}$, he was found. Compare the final \bar{u} denoting an object of the third person singular in Limbu.

Isolated forms are $l\bar{a}gyo$, he began; $chuw\bar{a}ntyo$, he wanted. They are Aryan loans. Future.—The participle ending in me is commonly used to form a future; thus, $khem\text{-}me\text{-}ng\bar{a}\text{-}n\bar{a}$, I shall go; $t\bar{a}\text{-}me\text{-}ng\text{-}n\bar{a}$, I shall come; $khem\text{-}me\text{-}ka\text{-}n\bar{a}$, thou wilt go. Such forms do not differ from the present. The same is the case with forms such as $k\bar{a}$ $leng\text{-}ng\bar{a}$, I shall be; $lu\text{-}w\bar{a}\text{-}ng\bar{a}\text{-}n\bar{a}$, I shall say; and perhaps also $k\bar{a}$ $mok\text{-}tw\bar{a}ng\text{-}ng\bar{a}$, I shall beat.

The suffix m in $ch\bar{a}$ -m, we will eat; chugu-m, we will make (merry), is perhaps connected with me.

Forms such as $l\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ -khep- $m\bar{a}$ par- $l\bar{u}$, to-return is-required, I will return; khusi chug- $m\bar{a}$ -nu wai- $n\bar{a}$, merry making-for is, we should make merry; $t\bar{a}r$ - $n\bar{a}$ par-chha, coming is required, one should come, are not futures. I am not able to analyse them properly.

Imperative.—The base alone is commonly used as an imperative; thus, pi, give. A suffix \bar{a} is often added; thus, $yung-\bar{a}$, sit; $\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, come; $pug\bar{a}$, stand; $siy\bar{a}$, die. In $k\bar{a}$ $piy\bar{a}ng$, give me, $\bar{a}ng$ is used instead. The final ng is perhaps a pronominal suffix denoting an object of the first person singular.

The suffixes tu, du, and su are used in forms such as mok-tu, beat; thvn-du, bind; tak-su, draw. They perhaps denote the object.

 $T\bar{a}$ is used instead of tu in luk- $t\bar{a}$, run.

A suffix nu is used in $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -pi-nu, put on; $\bar{a}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -nu, bring. It is probably a postposition meaning 'in order to,' 'for.'

Chuk- $m\bar{a}$ -leng-di- $n\bar{i}$, please make, literally seems to mean 'to make is.' Compare yung- $m\bar{a}$ leng-di, to sit is, I should be.

The negative imperative is formed by adding n to the base; thus, $khy\bar{a}$ -n, do not go; chugu-n, do not do.

Verbal nouns.—The most usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $m\bar{a}$; thus, $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, to live; chuk- $m\bar{a}$, to do; $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, food. Mok- $m\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, to beat, and mok- $m\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, beating, are the genitive and the instrumental, respectively, of this form.

Other verbal nouns are formed by adding \bar{a} , $n\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}$; thus, $uni-\bar{a}$, to go; $wet-n\bar{a}$, to be; $mok-t\bar{a}$ hesu-ng, to beat can-I, I may beat.

In chara-chuk-nu, in order to feed, we have the suffix nu which is also used in the imperative.

Participles.—It has already been mentioned that several participles are apparently used in order to form the finite tenses. Forms such as lek-sā-wā, were; ā-ning nā-hā-i;

we being-are, we are; $yung-me-n\bar{a}$, being-is, he lives, seem to contain participles, or rather verbal nouns, ending in $w\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$, me, respectively. Forms such as $mok-m\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, beating, have also been mentioned and explained as cases of the verbal noun.

As in other connected forms of speech participles are also formed by adding suffixes to a verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, sohung, seeing-from, having seen.

Siyā-rok, dead, seems to mean 'dying like' and to contain a verbal noun ending in \bar{a} . In $siy\bar{a}$ -rok- $m\bar{a}$, dead, the suffix $m\bar{a}$ has been added. It is the same suffix as that used in the formation of verbal nouns.

 $M\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}b$ - $w\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{i}$, lost, is formed by adding the suffix $w\bar{a}$ mentioned above and a particle $r\bar{i}$, which is perhaps an emphatic suffix.

A suffix nu occurs in we-nu- $ch\bar{a}$, being; yem-nu- $n\bar{a}$, fatted. The latter word contains the suffix $n\bar{a}$ which seems to be the usual suffix of the relative participle. Compare the suffix $n\bar{a}$ used with adjectives.

A form such as sohung, seeing from, having seen, can be considered as a conjunctive participle. The suffix is hung, which probably means 'from.'

In $batl\bar{a}$ -chugu-hung-ra, together-making-on, having gathered, ra has been added. This ra is probably an intensifying or indefinite particle related to the $r\bar{\imath}$ which has been mentioned above.

The most common suffix of the conjunctive participle is, however, $n\bar{a}$; thus, chugu $n\bar{a}$, having done. Ra can be added; thus, $luk-t\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-ra$, having run.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. $K\bar{a}$ mok- $t\bar{a}$ chāe-ng- $n\bar{a}$, I am beaten, literally means 'I beating eating-I-am.'

Negative verb.—The negative verb is apparently formed by suffixing n and adding $n\bar{a}$, is; thus, $w\bar{a}mme-nga-n-n\bar{a}$, I will not remain. $Lek-se-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, did not pass, must in that case be a slip instead of $lek-se-w\bar{a}-n-n\bar{a}$. Compare $t\bar{a}e-w\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, he has come. In $kh\bar{a}k-s\bar{a}-ng-ng\bar{a}$, he did not want, ng is apparently used instead. In $pi-yo-n-n\bar{a}$, did not give; the negative n is preceded by yo. In $pi-yo-n\bar{a}$, didst not give, this yo is used alone, if $pi-yo-n\bar{a}$ is not a slip of the pen for $pi-yo-n-n\bar{a}$. Hodgson states that the negative particle is an infix ni or nin. It is probable that this ni is identical with the n just mentioned. If that be the case, the negative verb is formed by adding the negative verb substantive formed by prefixing n to the copula $n\bar{a}$. $M\bar{a}-n-n\bar{a}$, it is not, seems to contain a double negative, the particle $m\bar{a}$ and n.

Interrogative particle.—There is apparently an interrogative particle $l\bar{a}$; thus, $i - l\bar{a}$, what? $n\bar{a}$ on inkhok $th\bar{a}pp\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, this horse how old? Another particle i is used in disjunctive questions; thus, $cho-ko-n\bar{a}-i$ $m\bar{a}n-n\bar{a}-i$, have you eaten or not?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is a conversation with a villager. Both have been received from Darjeeling. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 408 and ff.

[No. 30.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

YAKHĀ.'

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Ikko yāpmī-gā hichchi ichchyā waisā. U-gā-mā-dekhī pāk-nā-ngā One man-of twohis-sons were. Them-among-from younger-by lu-nā, 'e ā-po, sampati nuhmag ā-gā angsā-chahĩ ${
m k\bar{a}}$ piyang.' Lo 'O my-father, property fromsharenıy me give.Then u-khī-ngā u-khī-ngā-chī āpnu sampati hāsu-bi-nā. Pyak din lekse-wā-nā, him-by them-to own property divided. Many dayspassed-not, ichchhe batlā chugu-hung-ra māngdu-nā rājīpatā-be khewā-nā kāk pāk-nā alltogetheryoung his-son having-made far country-to wentwahã hāku luchāpan chuguwā-nā bitwa-nai \dim āpnu sampati there riotousness and doing days : spending own propertyleptā-hāk-su-nā. Jaba u-khi-ngā kāk leptā-hāk-su, taba u rājī-be When him-by allwasted. wasted, then thatcountry-in anikāl leksā-hā. Taba u-khī kangāl aghor lekse-khewā-nā. Ani u-khi became. Then ħе mighty famine destitute Andto-be-began. he wākkhu-wā-be ikko-gā rājī-be khvā-nā, u be wā-mā lāgyo, isā-ngā country-in went,thatcitizens-in one-of withto-live began, whom-by u-khi āpnu khet-be phāk chārā-chuk-nu pāk-su-nā. Ani u-khī-ngā u own field-in swineto-graze sent. Andhim-by thosekholtā-be-hunu jo phāk-chī-ngā cho-wā-chī, āpnu pet bharā-mā chuwāntyo, husks-in-from which swine-by ate, own belly to-fill wanted, pani ani isā-ngā-chī u-khī i-je-tī-chā piyonnā. Taba u-khī chet andanyone-by evenhim anything Then gave-not. to-him sense u-khī-ngā lu-nā, lekse-yā-na, ani ʻā-gā ā•pā-gā nā-khoi khetālā-chī-gā became, him-by said, and 'my my-father-of how-many servants-of pyāk chāleppā leksā-wā, āni kā sāk-ngā mārā-chungme-ngā-nā. Κā breadmuchwas, andhunger-with dying-am. I pung-me-ngā-ra ã-gā ā-pā-hebe khem-me-ngā-nā ani u-khī-nung luwā-ngā-nā, rising my my-father-to go-will andhim-to say-will, ā-pā, kā-ngā Tāng-kheng-be ani ing-khi-be samne pap chugu-ngà. "O my-father, me-by Heaven-to andyou-to before sindid. Kã pheri ung-khi-kā ichchyā lup-mā rokhiptu-ngā-mā Kā mānnā. I again your son to-say worthy Meam-not.

ing-khi-ga khetālā-be bohung ikko chuk-mā-leng-di-nī." Taba u-khī pugā-nā your servants-in from one make-please." Then hearose āpnu ā-pā hebe khyā-nā. Tara u-khi wai-sā-nā, u-gā his-own father to went. Buthe(far-off)his was, i-pā-ngā luk-ta-nā-ra sohung dayā chugu-nā, ani u-gā gāl ā-be father-by having-seen pity made, and running hisneck-on tāsā-chugu-nā ukhi-ngā chuppā chugu-nā. Ichchyā-ngā u-khi-nu lu-nā embracing-doing him-by kissdid.The-son-by him-with said, ʻ ye kā-ngā ā-pā, Tängkhyäng-be ani ing-khi-kā sāmne pāp chugu-nā. · 0 father, me-by Heaven-to and you-of before. sin . did. $ing-khi-g\bar{a}$ pheri Ani **c**hyā mānnā.' lup-mā Tara āpā-ngā āpnu And again your son to-say am-not.' Butfather-by own chākar-chī-hobung lu-nā, 'kāk bhandā **n**u-nā te niklā-chugu-hung-ra servants-to said, `allfromgoodclothhaving-brought u-khī wā-mā-pi; $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{i}$ u-gā muk-be chhen, ani lang-be jutā wā-mā-pi-nu. and his himput-on; hand-on ring, andfeet-on shoes put. Ani yem-nu-nā pik uchchyā āp-tā-nu si-su. Ani ani-ngā chām ani Andfattedcow its-young-one bring kill. Andus-by will-eat and Irok-bohung, ānand chugu-m. $n\bar{a}$ ā-gā achch vā siyārok, pheri will-make. What-for, merriment thismy my-son was-dead, againmāsā-khiyā-nā-ra, ningā-nā; pheri tok-tu-nā.' u-chī-khe-ngā Taba khusi having-been-lost, revived; againwas-found.' Then them-by happy ānand chugu-nā. made. merriment

tum-nā U-gā uchchyā khet-be wai-sā-nā. Jaba u-khī tāmennā pāng-gā Hiselderhis-son field-in When was. hecoming house-of tāe-nā, taba bāzā nung lāktā-mā keng sor khep-su-nā. Ani u-khi-ngā musicthecame, withnear dancing sound heard. Andhim-bydās-be bohung ikko keng āpnu kā-nā, ani sim-du-nā. ' nā ijeti?' from slaves-in near own called, asked, 'this what?' ʻing-khi-gā U-khī-ngā u-khī lu-nā, nunchhā tāye-wā-nā; ani ing-khi-ga Him-by him-to said, 'your brothercome-is; and your vem-nu-nā pābā-ngā pik uch-chhyā si-su-nā, irok-hong u-khi nuroknā fattedfather-by its-young-one killed, becausehimsafe tok-tu-su-nā.' Tara ukhi·ngā $luk-khok-m\bar{a}$ chuguk-su-nā ani bhitra uniā Butfound.' him-byangermadeand insideto-go U-khi-be khāksāng-ngā. u-gā pābā bāirā tāe-nā, mānā-chug-niā. u-khi Therefore wanted-not. his father outsid**e** came. himentreated. u-pā U-khi-ngā nung luwā-nā, ' kā soh, nākhok barsa bohung his-father Him-by tosaid, 'I*see*, so-many years since ung-khi-gā sewâ chugu-wāng-nā; ani kaile-chā ing-khi-gā chegyā your servicedid; andever your order

ung-khi-ngā leptā-hāk-sung-mānnā. kaile-chā ikko Ani kā meduhā-kā transgressed-not. And you-by ever one megoat-of ā-gā kām-nibā nuhung uchchyā-chā piyo-nā, ānand chuk-mā. Tara friends withkid-even gavest-not, mymerrimentto-make. Butbesyā ung-khi-gā kāk sampati chāi-nā, ung-khi-gā nā chyā isā nung your harlots withallproperty devoured, this son whoyour ung-khi-ngā u-gā lāgī ni-ghari-be yem-nu-nā pik jaba tāe-na, you-by that-time-at him-of sake-for fatted when came, cow uchchyā si-suk-su-no.' u-khi luk-su-nā, 'he achchyā, Pābā-ngā ung-khi ' O killedest.' Father-by him-to said, my-son, its-calf youjetikā ā-gā wait-nā, kāk ung-khi-gā sadhai ani kā-nung wai-ka-na, whatmineallme-with andis,yours always are, ung-khi-gā nunchha mā-ho? chug-mā-nu-wāi-na, irok-bhane nā Tara khusi thisbrotheris-it-not? making-should-be, because your Butmerry siyārok-mā wai-sā-nā, pheri hing-ngā-rā-nā; māsāb-wā-rī khyā-wā-nā, pheri deadgone-was, again was, againrevived; losttok-tum-nā.' is-found.'

[No. 31.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

YĀKHĀ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

Kā Chainpur-be wākhubā nā-ngā, ani Dār-jī-ling-be tāe-wā-nā, bis I Chainpur-in residentam, and Darjiling-in have-come, twenty barkha lekse-nā. Chainpur bohung Dar-ji-ling yechchi din lāmbu wāit-nā. years passed. Chainpur from Darjiling eightdays way is.Tāp-mā kherī Dār-jī-ling roknā lāmbu mānnā. Nuh-nā lāmbu bung inComing Darjiling likeroadnot-is. Smallroad from tār-nā-par-chha. Aningā Dār-jī-ling tem rok mānnā. Alik din Our villageto-come-is-necessary. like **Darjiling** not-is. Few days wā-mā purlā pherī tem-be lāsā-khep-mā par-lā. Hākku pyāk din village-to living on againto-return is-required. Now many days wām-me-ngan-nā. Pāng-be ā-gā pābā lichi tum-nā āpphu-chī $m\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ ani stay-will-not. four House-in myfathermotherandelderbrothers wāit-nā. Kāk-kā behā leksā-nā. Kāk-nuhung ibong chyā-chī wāit-nā. are. All-of marriageoccurred. All-with ten80ns are. wākhubā? Ung-khi hene Hākku ung-khi hene khem-me-ka-nā? You where resident? Nowyou where go-will? Ung-khi-ngā cho-ko-nāi chā-mā mānnāi? Henning ung-khi kām-me You-by foodate-or or-not? When work-to you Ingkhoi khem-me-ka-nā? din bong uche wāi-ka-nā? Ī kām How-many go-will? days sincehere are? Whatworkchuk-mā hesu-wā-ka-nā? Ung-khi-gā pāng ing-khoi māng-du-nā? Hākku can? doYour house how far-is? Now khem-me-ka-nā? Pherī ing-khi henning tā-me-ka-nā? ing-khi i-be where go-will? you Againyou when come-will? Lichi din-be nehe-mā tā-meng-nā. Four days-in herewill-come. Ung-khi hene-chā-māng khyān. Hanī ābā. Dhilo chugun. You anywhere do-not-go. Quickly come. Delaydo-not-make. Chehyā Hanī cho. chugun. eat.Talkdo-not-make. Quickly

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FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I am a citizen of Chainpur, and I came to Darjiling about twenty years ago. It is a week's journey from Chainpur to Darjiling. The roads are different from those in Darjiling, and it is necessary to follow a small path. Our village is also different from Darjiling. In a few days I shall go back to my village, and I shall not stay here much longer. My father and mother and four elder brothers are at home. They are all married, and they have ten sons all counted. Where are you living? Where are you going? Have you dined or not? When are you going to work? How long have you lived here? What is your occupation? How far is it to your house? Where are you going? When are you coming back?

I shall come back in four days.

Do not go away. Come quickly. Do not delay. Eat quickly. Do not talk.

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KHAMBU.

The Khambus are one of the fighting tribes of Nepal. They have been described by Hodgson under the head of Kirāntī. Their country is sometimes called 'nō lākh Kirānt.' This phrase has been interpreted to mean that a household tax, at two annas per family, yielded nine hundred thousand annas, but should probably be understood as an exaggerated estimate of the number of villages included. Compare the remarks by Dr. Fleet in the Bombay Gazetteer, vol. i, Part ii, p. 298, Note².

Hodgson states that the Kirānt country comprises the districts inhabited by the Khambus and Limbus, respectively. The former, the so-called Khambuwān, is situated between the Sun Kosi and the Arun; the latter, the so-called Limbuwān, between the Arun and the Singilela Range. Mr. Gait, on the other hand, informs us that, according to an educated Yākhā whom he has consulted, the Khambus are not Kirāntis. Compare the remarks in the introduction to this sub-group on p. 274 above.

The Khambus live to the north-east of the Jimdars and Yakhas, on the southern spurs of the Himalayas. Their name is dialectically pronounced Khwombu. They speak different dialects, and Hodgson has published vocabularies of several of them, and given a full grammatical description of the Bahing dialect.

It has been mentioned in the introduction to this group that Hodgson divided the country inhabited by the Khambus into three parts—

- 1. Wallo Kirant or Hither Kirant, from the Sunkosi to the Likhu;
- 2. Mäih Kirant or Middle Kirant, from Likhu to Arun; and
- 3. Pallo Kirānt or Further Kirānt, from the Arun to the Mechi and the Singilela ridge. These are Khas terms and refer to the Khas metropolis in the valley of Nepal proper.

The so-called Wallo Kirant is the home of the Lohorong and Chhingtang septs of Khambus.

A long series of minor tribes lives in the so-called Majh Kirant, viz., the Rung-chhenbung, Rodong, Dungmali, Khaling, Dumi, Sangpang, Balali, Lambichhong, Bahing, Thulung, Kulung, Waling, and Nachhereng septs.

In the so-called Pallo Kirant we finally find the Chourasya Khambus.

All these dialects are closely related. Most of them are, however, unsatisfactorily known, and it is impossible to class them with certainty. Hodgson classed Rüngchhenbüng, Chhingtang, Wāling, and Lāmbichhöng as a separate group, which he called Bontāwā, and he further remarked that Lāmbichhöng can be considered as a sub-division of Wāling. The so-called Bontāwā dialects are closely connected with Dūngmālī, Lōhōrōng, Sāngpāng, and Bālāli. All these forms of Khambu can therefore be classed as one separate group. The Rōdong, Nāchherēng, Kūlung, Bāhing, Thūlung, and Chouraśya dialects connect this group with Dūmi and Khāling. Bāhing is most closely connected with Thūlung. It has been fully dealt with by Hodgson, and a sketch of its grammar will be given in what follows.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Khambu have been forwarded from Darjeeling. They represent a dialect which corresponds to Hodgson's Kūlung. Another set of specimens have been forwarded as illustrations of the dialect of the Rāis. In most characteristics it is the same dialect as that described by Hodgson under the head of Dūmi.

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The various Khambu dialects will be dealt with in what follows. In the first place the Khambu specimens forwarded from Darjeeling will be reproduced and described. A detailed sketch of the Bāhing dialect, based on the materials published by Hodgson will follow, and short notes on the remaining dialects mentioned by Hodgson will be added. Lastly the specimens forwarded under the head of Rāi will be printed.

Khambus have emigrated from their home in Nepal into Sikkim and Darjeeling.

At the last Census of 1901, they were also returned from Jalpaiguri and from Assam.

No information about the number of Khambus in Nepal has been forthcoming. The number of speakers in those districts which fall within the scope of this Survey has been estimated as follows:—-

Darjeeling	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	33,490
Sikkim				•		•	•	•	•	•		8,000
									To	TAL		4 1, 4 90

At the last Census of 1901, the dialect was returned from the following districts:-

Bengal I	Proside	nev.	_	-								Ü
_		_									. 32,775	
Darje	_	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	
Sikkir	n.	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. 9,553	
Jalpai	guri	•		•	•	•		•	•	•	. 1,062	
•	_										•	43,390
Assam	•			•		•		•	•	•	•	564
											TOTAL	43,954

It is impossible to say whether all the speakers of Khambu in the Bengal Presidency use the same dialect. The two specimens printed below, which have been forwarded from Darjeeling, apparently represent the dialect which Hodgson called Külung.

AUTHORITIES-

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Hodgson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Sub-Himalayas. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xvi, Part ii, 1847, pp. 1235 and ff. Reprinted in Selections from the Records of the Government of Bengal. No. xxvii, Calcutta 1857, pp. 126 and ff., and in Hodgson's Essays on the Languages, Literature, and Religion of Nepal and Tibet. London, 1874, Pt. ii, pp. 29 and ff. In the reprint the paper is entitled On the Aborigines of the Himalaya.

"—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated People called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the Kingdom of Nepal, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is named after them Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays on Indian Subjects. London, 1880, Vol. I, pp. 176 and ff., 320 and ff. Contains vocabularies of the various dialects and a Bāhing grammar.

Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map showing the distribution of Indian Languages. Calcutta, 1867. Contains numerals in Kirāntī, etc.

Hunter, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Dalton, E. T.,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Contains a Kirântī vocabulary.

The remarks on Khambu grammar which follow are entirely based on the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u occur both as long and as short. The difference between long and short vowels does not appear to be great.

Final vowels are sometimes dropped; thus, $kong\bar{a}$ and kong, I; mi and m, of; $p-k\bar{a}$, from in, compare pi, in, and so forth.

O and u, e and i, respectively, are sometimes interchanged; thus, om and um, his; o-mi, my; $\bar{a}s-me$, whose?

The dialect possesses sets of gutturals, palatals, dentals, and labials. Each set consists of hard and soft sounds, with and without aspiration. A cerebral t occurs in words such as $kh\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -nu, going. It is interchangeable with the dental t, and we must probably infer that there is only one t, pronounced as a semi-dental.

B is used instead of p in $b\bar{a}ri$ -b, in the fields.

We have no information about the use of tones and accent. Hodgson mentions the pausing and the abrupt tones as very pronounced in some Khambu dialects. The abrupt tone is probably meant in cases where a visarga is written, such as roh, a slave; pih, a cow.

Prefixes.—Most prefixes in use in Khambu are abbreviated forms of the personal pronouns. They are, however, sometimes used as simple formatives without a pronominal meaning; thus, $o\text{-}chh\bar{a}$, son, lit. my son; $\bar{a}m\text{-}long$, foot, lit. thy foot. Compare the remarks under the head of pronouns, below.

A prefix i, with uncertain meaning, occurs in words such as i-jina and jina, merry; i-hop-mi-si, mine own; hop-mi, own. Compare the Yākhā prefix of the third person.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral 'one' is often used as an indefinite article; thus, *i-bom mimchhā*, a daughter; *i-bom pā*, a father. Forms such as *ilpo-missi*, eli missi, a man, show that the numeral can be combined with various generic suffixes. Our materials are not, however, sufficient for giving a list of such suffixes and their meaning.

Nouns—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished in the common way by using different words or by adding suffixes. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: $chh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, he-goat; $chh\bar{a}ng\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, she-goat: kheb- \bar{a} , dog; khep-chi, bitch: $ghor\bar{a}$, horse; ghori, mare: $khissi\ d\bar{a}re$, a male deer: $khis\ om$ - $m\bar{a}$, a female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The suffix of the plural is chi; thus, o-bu-chi, my elder brothers. Instead of chi we find si in $beshye\text{-}si\text{-}k\bar{a}$, with harlots. A plural suffix $h\bar{a}$ seems to occur in $ng\bar{a}li$ $nop\text{-}h\bar{a}\text{-}m$, to good men. Compare Limbu. There are no traces in the materials available of a dual.

Case.—The base alone, without any suffix, is used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs, and the object. It sometimes also occurs as the subject of transitive verbs; thus, $\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{a}$ set-tu, thy-father killed. The subject of such verbs is, however, commonly put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} $pik\bar{a}$, the father-by said. The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, ribo- $w\bar{a}$, (bind him) with ropes.

The suffix \bar{a} is also used to form a dative; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , to the father.

The usual suffix of the locative and terminative is $p\bar{a}$, pi, or b; thus, $th\bar{a}mpu-p\bar{a}$, in the country; khim-pi, in the house; $b\bar{a}ri-b$, in the fields. Another suffix of the terminative is to; thus, am-dos-to, upon his back. The suffix ko is often also used with the meaning of a locative; thus, $th\bar{a}mpu-ko$, in the country; $tup\bar{a}-ko$, among the citizens.

The suffix of the ablative is $k\bar{a}$; thus, $t\bar{a}to$ - $k\bar{a}$, from years; kholong-pi- $k\bar{a}$, from among all, umsip- $p\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, from the husks; sewaite-chi-p- $k\bar{a}$, from among the servants. Another ablative suffix is $khon\bar{a}$; thus, kheta- $l\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$ - $khon\bar{a}$, from among the servants.

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The suffix of the genitive is mi; thus, $p\bar{a}$ -mi, of a father. The final i is often dropped, thus, $khet\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -chi-m, of the servants. The governed noun is commonly repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing noun; thus, o-mi o-hai, me-of my-share; $\bar{a}m$ -mi $\bar{a}m$ - $chh\bar{a}$, thee-of thy-son. The genitive suffix is often dispensed with; thus, eli missi $\bar{a}m$ - $chh\bar{a}$, one man his-sons, one man's sons.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dos-pa, behind; lais-pi, before; lo, with; $l\bar{a}gi$, for; dok-pu, under; $k\bar{a}$, with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the noun they qualify. A common suffix used after adjectives is $p\bar{a}$, which becomes p before the plural suffix chi. Thus, $omlo-p\bar{a}$ $ghor\bar{a}ng$ zin, the white horse's saddle; $ng\bar{a}li$ no-p-chi, men good-ones, good men. The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is sometimes dropped; thus, ilpo $ng\bar{a}li$ $no-pi-k\bar{a}$, from a good man; compare $no-p\bar{a}$, good.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, amnechhe-p-kā mimchhā-p-kā nechho dungre-pe, his-elder-sister-than woman-than brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister; kholong-pi-kā ngali no-pā teī, all-in-from much good cloth, best cloth.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify. The suffix chi in ngich-chi, two; sup-chi, three, etc., is probably the usual plural suffix. The suffixes bum, po, li, etc., in i-bum, one; ngip-po, two; e-li, one; i-l-po, one, etc., are probably generic particles. We have not, however, sufficient materials for laying down definite rules about their use. Compare the remarks under the head of Bāhing on p. 329 below.

The original form of the numeral 'one' is apparently ik. Compare ik-pong, ten; ik- $kh\bar{a}lo$, one score, twenty. Higher numerals were apparently formerly counted in twenties. Compare $ng\bar{a}k$ -khal, five twenties, hundred. Aryan loan-words are now also used; thus, $pach\bar{a}s$, fifty.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kongā, kong, I.

o-mi, o, my.

ām-mi, ām, e, thy.

kho-mi, khasu, um, om, am, o, his.

kei, we.

i-mi, our.

ān-ni-mi, your.

kho-chi-mi, their.

Several other forms occur. The usual case suffixes are contained in forms such as $kei-y\bar{a}$, by us; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}-\bar{a}$, by thee, etc. According to Hodgson most Khambu dialects possess a dual in addition to the singular and the plural. There are no traces of this third number in the materials available.

Other Khambu dialects possess a double set of dual and plural forms of the pronoun of the first person, one including and another excluding the person addressed. Thus, Bāhing gōi, I and you; gō-ku, I and they. The form kei in the table apparently corresponds to Bāhing gōi. I-mi, our, corresponds to the inclusive form i-ke, my and your, in Bāhing. The list of words contains another form o-khi-pi, of us, which seems to be the corresponding exclusive form. Compare Bāhing wa-ke, my and their; Kūlung wokhi-mi, our.

The form $\bar{a}m$ -mi, thou, in the list, is perhaps a slip of the pen for $\bar{a}m$ -ni; compare Külung $\bar{a}mni$ -mi, your. The form $\bar{a}m$, thy, is simply the abbreviated $\bar{a}m$ -mi, thy. It sometimes also occurs with the meaning of a possessive pronoun of the third person.

In that case it is interchangeable with om and um, and is sometimes written with a short a. Compare Kūlung wa.

The form e, thy, in e-dos-pa, behind you, corresponds to Bāhing \bar{i} , thy.

The various forms of the third person are probably all demonstrative pronouns. The final ko in khung-ko, he, is an intensifying addition. Compare also $n\bar{a}-ko$, him; $n\bar{a}-ko-p-k\bar{a}$, from him. Another similar addition is do or $d\bar{a}$ in $kho-d\bar{a}$ and kho-do, him. The same is perhaps the case with su, $s\bar{a}$ in kha-su, his; $kho-s\bar{a}$, him; $kho-s\bar{a}-\bar{a}$, by him.

Khongāng, his own, is perhaps connected with kho, he. The same base is perhaps contained in honaia, to him.

Other forms of the third person are $kho-s\bar{a}-p$, by him; $khung-ko-s\bar{a}$, by him; khaash, to them; $khik-k\bar{a}$, from them; o-mi, his, etc.

Thus, o-mi o-hai, me-of my share, my share; omi om-khet, him of his-field; $\bar{a}m$ -mi $\bar{a}m$ -chhā, thee-of thy-son. Instead of om, um, his, we also find o, u, respectively; thus, omi o-bo, him-of his-belly; o-bongkā u-chhā, my-uncle his-son. In mu-huk-pi, his-hand-on, mu is used instead. Compare the Kūlung pronoun $m\bar{u}$ -ko, he, in Hodgson's list. $W\bar{a}$ in deproye $w\bar{a}$ -chchhā, how many sons? corresponds to Kūlung wa, his.

It has already been remarked that these pronominal prefixes are sometimes used as simple formatives without implying the meaning of a definite person. Compare o- $p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{a}m$ -long, feet; om- $lo-p\bar{a}$, white, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are ongko, angko, angka, ah, this; khungku, khungkā, mung-ko, ko, that.

Note also the reflexive pronoun hop-mi, own; i-hop-mi-si, mine own.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}se$, who? $\bar{a}s-me$, whose ? ue, what? dek, how much? how many? dei, how much? deppoye, how many? The final e in $\bar{a}s-e$, u-e, deppo-y-e, is probably an interrogative particle.

Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding so or so-m to the interrogative; thus, $\bar{a}s-\bar{a}-so$, by anybody; u-som, anything.

There are no relative pronouns. Interrogative and demonstrative pronouns are, however, sometimes used as a kind of relative; thus, ilpo-mi...ās-ā khung-ku pok-su, of one... who sent him; ām-mi angko ām-chhā, khollong beshye-si-kā ām-mi rong chā-khu-chi, khallu tā, khollungā ānā-ā bāchhā set-tu, thee-of this thy-son, he harlots-with thee-of property devoured, he came, then thee-by calf killedest, when this thy son came, who wasted thy property with harlots, then thou killedest a calf.

Verbs.—The Khambu verb is comparatively simple, if the specimens faithfully represent the actual state of affairs. It is still a noun, and there are no certain instances of the use of personal suffixes in order to indicate the subject. On the other hand, there is apparently a tendency to prefix a pronoun in order to indicate the object; compare $khung-ko-lo\ kho-p\bar{a}-piko$, him-to him-to-will say, I will say to him; $khodo-pik\bar{a}$, he said to him, etc. Similarly, the final u in forms such as set-tu, killedest; tut-tu, asked, perhaps denotes an object of the third person. Compare Limbu.

Verb substantive.—The most common base of the verb substantive is tu. We also find ka and Aryan forms such as ho and chhu.

Finite verb.—The same form is often used to denote different tenses. It is not, therefore, possible to give a full sketch of Khambu conjugation.

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Present time.—The usual form of the present tense takes one of the suffixes o and e. O, or u, is most common in the first person singular, but also occurs in the second and third persons; e is used in all persons. Thus, tu-o, am; tu-we, art, is, are; $kong\bar{a}$ kero, I strike; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ kero, thou strikest; kho- $s\bar{a}$ -p kere, he strikes; tu- $ch\bar{a}$ -e, he is sitting; ka-e and ke, it is; dei tom-e, how far is; $ch\bar{a}re$ -mu-yo, he is grazing.

The suffixes o and e are sometimes preceded by a t; thus, $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ ker-t-e, you strike, and perhaps also forms such as kong $kh\bar{a}$ -t-o, I go.

A suffix ang occurs in the only instance of the first person plural which is found in the specimens; viz., $kei-y\bar{a}$ ker-ang, we strike. Compare $ng\bar{a}$ in $chimng\bar{a}$, they are.

In $khach\bar{a}$ ke-chi-no, they strike, chi is perhaps the plural suffix and no a verb substantive.

The forms $chhu\tilde{i}$, they are; $chimng\bar{a}$, they are, probably contain the suffix i, i.e., e mentioned above.

Ho, is, is an Aryan loan-word.

A periphrastic present is formed by adding the present tense of the verb substantive to the base or to the present participle; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -tu-e, they are found; ker-tong tu-wo, I am beating.

Past time.—The suffixes o and e are also used with the meaning of a past. Thus, tu-o, I was; ker-o, I have beaten; tu-e, we were, they were, etc. Forms such as siyo, (a famine) arose; mu-yo, I did, probably contain the same o. O or u is preceded by a t in forms such as set-tu, he killed.

Instead of e we find \bar{i} in forms such as $m\bar{a}n-t\bar{a}-\bar{i}$, did not pass; $jaw\bar{a}p-p\bar{i}-\bar{i}$, answer gave. Several other forms are used with the meaning of a past.

The base alone occurs in forms such as $m\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{\imath}$, did not give; $t\bar{a}$, he came; mu, I did. A suffix ko, i.e., o preceded by a k, occurs in $kh\bar{a}m$ -mo-ko, he filled; $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ko, I have

come, etc. This o is probably connected with the u in forms such as pok-s-u, he sent him; $m\bar{a}sdi$ -t-u, he wasted.

A common suffix of the third person is \bar{a} ; thus, $tuv\bar{a}$, he was, they were. Forms such as $t\bar{a}h\bar{a}h$, he found; $chhuli-m\bar{a}h$, he made anger, he got angry, apparently show that this suffix is pronounced with the abrupt tone. In the first person singular we find $ker\text{-}tong\ tu\text{-}w\bar{a}\bar{-a}$, I was beating. The double \bar{a} probably denotes the tone, and the final ng of ker-tong is perhaps a pronominal suffix of the first person singular.

 \bar{A} is sometimes preceded by a t; thus, tok- $t\bar{a}$, passed. Another suffix le has been inserted in $kh\bar{a}$ -le- $t\bar{a}$, he went (to a distant country). It perhaps indicates that the action of the verb takes place at some distance.

A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ occurs in $m\bar{a}m$ -mo- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not; $m\bar{a}m$ -pi- $ng\bar{a}$, didst not give. It has been added to the suffix e in $m\bar{a}ng$ $kh\bar{a}$ -e- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not go. It is apparently only used with a negative.

A suffix ni or nu occurs in forms such as tu-va-ni, you were; $h\bar{a}yo$ -po-ni, he divided; mohi-dungu-nu, he kissed; e-nu, he heard.

In the second person singular a suffix yo has been added in $tuvo\bar{a}$ -yo, wast; $kh\bar{a}$ -to-yo, wentest.

Isolated forms are $to-kh\bar{\imath}$, he saw; $ch\bar{a}-khu-chi$, he devoured. They apparently contain a suffix $kh\bar{\imath}$ or khu. Chi in $ch\bar{a}-khu-chi$ is perhaps the plural suffix. It occurs in the phrase khollong $\bar{a}m-mi$ rong $ch\bar{a}-khu-chi$, he thy property devoured; compare $rong-chh\bar{\imath}$, property.

Future.—The present is also used as a future; thus, $kh\bar{a}to$, I will go; kho- $p\bar{a}$ -pik-o, I will say to him.

A suffix $n\bar{a}$ is added in forms such as $kong\ chhu-o-n\bar{a}$, I may be, I should be; $kong\bar{a}$ $ker-u-n\bar{a}$, I may beat. It is preceded by $y\bar{a}$ in $kong\bar{a}\ ker-e-y\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, I shall beat. The list of words further contains the form $kong\ tu-o-ho-la$, I shall be.

Imperative.—The base alone is sometimes used as an imperative; thus, cha, eat; yuk-so, keep. The most common form of the imperative, however, ends in te; thus, bai-te, take; pi-te, give; ker-te, strike. The present base ending in o is used in forms such as pi-yo, give. The list of words further contains forms such as $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, go; $siy\bar{a}$, die, etc.

Chāgam, let us eat, is perhaps a verbal noun or a participle.

Verbal noun.—A verbal noun is formed by adding am; thus, ker-am lagi, beating for, to beat. In the form ker- $m\bar{a}$, beating, am has been replaced by $m\bar{a}$. Compare also $kh\bar{a}$ -m mo-ko, filling did, he filled.

A locative or terminative of the base is $char\bar{a}\bar{\imath}-p\bar{\imath}$, in order to tend. $Chhuw\bar{a}$, to be, is the past base; or else $w\bar{a}$ is the same suffix as Tibetan pa, ba; compare $t\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, on coming.

Participles.—A present participle is formed by adding to, and a corresponding past participle by adding $t\bar{a}$; compare the present and past bases. Thus, $kh\bar{a}$ -to, going; ker-to-ng tu-wo, beating am, I am beating. A suffix $p\bar{a}$ occurs in tu- $p\bar{a}$, living, resident.

Other past participles are formed by adding ko or $k\bar{a}$ to the past base ending in \bar{a} ; thus, $siy\bar{a}-ko$, dead; $m\bar{a}s\bar{a}-k\bar{a}$, lost.

Chhuwā-ħā, being, is probably the ablative of the verbal noun. Compare khetalā- $p\bar{\imath}$ -kho-nā, servants-in-them-from, from among the servants. Compare $t\bar{a}$ -bā-nā, comingafter, on coming.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding nu or $n\bar{a}$ to the base, with or without the suffixes o and \bar{a} ; thus, bai- $n\bar{a}$, bringing; pok-o- $n\bar{a}$, arising; bulsa- $n\bar{a}$, running; $kh\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ -nu, going. The past tense alone is also used in the same way; thus, $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ko, having come; udohoe-khodo- $pik\bar{a}$, why? that having said, because. $Piky\bar{a}$ -lo, on saying, is formed from a verbal noun ending in $y\bar{a}$, i.e. \bar{e} by adding the postposition lo, with.

Causatives are formed by adding so, su or mit; thus, yuk-so, cause to be, keep; pok-su, sent; $kh\bar{a}m$ -mit-te, cause him to put on. A causal verb is also set, kill; compare si, die.

Negative verb.—A negative verb is formed by prefixing $m\bar{a}n$, the final nasal of which is assimilated to a following consonant. A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is sometimes added; thus, $m\bar{a}n$ - $t\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$, did not pass; $m\bar{a}ng$ - $kh\bar{a}$ -e- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not go; $m\bar{a}m$ -pi, did not give; $m\bar{a}m$ -m- $ng\bar{a}$, I did not do.

Another negative particle is a suffixed no; thus, khā-to-no, I did not become, I am not; chhe-to-no, I do not know.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 32.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

SPECIMEN I.

Khikkā kānchhā ' e ngichi am-chhā tuwā. pikā, missī Eli smallsaid, · 0 were. Them-from twohis-sons One man(-of)kha-ash Ongā kho-sā o-hai kong piyo.' o-mi rong-chhi pāā, him-by them-to give.' Then my-share meme-of property father, o-chhā kānchhā kholongā mān-tāī, Orotto $n\bar{a}m$ hāyoponi. rong-chhi allhis-son not-passed, smalldivided.Many daysproperty luchpan-ko Khikkā hāyā chhoburi thāmpu khāletā. bāt-lo-mu debauchery-in That-after there went. far country gatheredmās-ditoe. Jaba rong-chhī morang tok-tā, o-mi nám morang When wasted. his property spending passed, spending days sivo. sisowā thāmpu-ko orotto khunko kholong mās-ditu, taba khungkā famine arose.then thatcountry-in bigwasted, he khā-ţā-nu Khikkā khungko chhuksip-chhowā khā-tā. Taba khungko goingdestitute-to-be went. And he he Then khungku āsā ilpo-mi ilpop-tuwa, khungku thāmpu-ko tupā-ko himwhoservant-became, one-of country-in residents-in thatkhungku Khikkā khungko-sā om-khet bo charăi-pi pok-su. o-mi thoseAnd him-by his-field pigsgrazing-for sent. his Khikkā khām-moko. khungku o-bo umsippā-kā bo-ā cho-yo, o-mi Andfill-did. thosepigs-by ate, hishis-belly husks-from honaiā Khungku-khānā khungku mām-pī. u-som āsā-so-nāo him-to Then iim anything not-gave. anyone-even khetālāchi-m orotto kho-sā, pikā, 'o-mi o-pā-mi khikkā aniutā, lahourers-of my-father-of many then him-by said, 'me-of thought-came,Kongā poko-nā chhuĩ, khikkā siyo. maisī kongā orotto säbeh \boldsymbol{I} arising and Ihunger die.is, breadmuch kho-pā-piko, khāto khonā khungko-lo o-pā-pā ihop·mi-si " O him-to-will-say, will-go him-with my-father-to and own Konga biruddha khonā ām-mi sāmunne pāp mu. kongā nām-to-ko pāā, I before sindid. thee-of Heaven-to againstand father, khetā-lā-pī ām-chhā Konga ām-mī khā-to-no. ām-mi tongko hosangā servants.in I thee-of became-not. thee-of thy-son likeagain 2 **r 2** VOL. III, PART I.

khonā ilpo tongā yuk-so.", Khonā pokā khungko um-pā-tuspo-ko khā-tā. from one likekeep.", Then hearosehis-father-near went. Khonā chhuburi tuwā, kha-su khungko um-pā khungki tokhi, khikkā Then hefar was, his his-father him saw, and um-sām tukā, khonā bulsa-nā khā-tā um-phosi-pā khep-pu kho pity came. and running went his-neck-on embracing him mohi-dungu-nu. O-chhā ʻе kho-dā-pikā, kongā pāā, nāmto-ko biruddha kissed.him-to-said, The-son 'O father, I Heaven-to against ām-mi sāmunne pāp mu. Kongā hosangā ām-mi ām-chhā tongko thee-of before sindid.Iagain thee of thy-son likekhā-to-no.' Kongā(sic) kongāng(sic) o-pā sewaite-chi-pkā kho-do-pikā, became-not.' Butthe-father own servants-to them-to-said, 'kholong-pi-kā ngāli no-pā teī lotte, kha khām-mit-te; khongā kho-mi 'all-in-from mostgoodrobebring, himto-put-on-cause; and mu-huk-pī mundrā, ām-long-pī khongā jutā wāī-mit-te. Kho-do-do-ko ring, his-hand-on andhis-feet-on shoes put. Then bāchhā chhyo-pā bai-nā set-te. Kho-do-do-ko keī-yā chāgam ijina bringingfatcalfkill. Then wewill-eat merry khā-te. Udohoe-khodo-pikā, angko o-chhā sivā-ko tuwā. hosangā le-tā; should-become. Why?-that-said, thismy-son deadwas, again lived; māsākā tuwā, hosangā tuwā.' Kho-do-do-ko kho-chi jina khā-tā. lostagainwas, was-found.' Then they merry became.

Um-chhā iethā bārib tuwā. Kho-do-do-ko khallu bangtong tuwā His-son eldestfield-in was. Then hecoming was khim-nī nājik-pingā tā-bā-nā, khollonga bājā enu chhāmāko omsal house-of near arriving, then music hearddance sound enu. Khongkā kho-sā hop-mi sewaite-chi-pkā ibon-chi najik-pī Then heard. him-by ownservants-in-from one near kāchhāah tuttu, 'angko ue?' Kho-sā-ā kho-do-pikā, 'am-ne-chho calling asked.'this what?' Him-bu him-said, 'thy-younger-brother chyopā tā, khodo-doko ām-pā bāchhā set-tu, udohoe pikyā-lo, kho andcame, thy-father fatcalf killed, whysaying-on, him Khollu khosā chhulimāh, seserugā tahah.' kho-do-do-ko gopā khā-to-no. found.' But safehewas-angry, and inside went-not. Udohoe um-pā-āḥ pākhā-pa-tā-no kho-sā lem-pikā. Kho-sā-āh his-father-by **Therefore** outside-coming him entreated. Him-bypā-āh jawāb piī, 'khongū, kongā anto tāto-kā ām-mi $sew\bar{a}$ father-to answergave, ·lo, I so-many years-from thee-of service muyo; kho-do-do-ko daio-song am-ring dālai-māmī mām-mo-ngā. Khodo-doko did; and ever thy-order transgressing not-did. And ānā khongā dālo-songā ibam bāthā songā mām-pingā; o-mi o-umthou meeverone kideven not-gavest; me-of my-

chi-kā jinā khā-te. Khalloe ām-mi angko ām-chhā, khollong friends-with merry might-make. But thee-of this thy-son, hebeshye-si-kā ām-mi rong chā-khu-chi, khallu tā, khollungā ānā-ā harlots-with thee-of property devoured, hecame, then thee-by kho-m lāgī chyop bā**c**hhā set-tu. Pā-ā kho-sā-ā pikā, ٠́е him-of sake-for killedest.Father-by fat calfhim-tò ' O said, o-chhāngā, ānā-ā kong-lo sādong tue. Khodo-doko j**y**ā o-m tue, kholong my-son, me-with alway8 art.And whatmineis, allām-ming Khalloe ho. jinam khā-mā khongā khunām khā-mā thineis.But $to ext{-}become$ andmerry gladto-become āchhing-ngā-ngā; udohoe pikyā-lo, ongkoām-necho siyako tuwa, was-proper; whysaying-on, thisthy-younger-brother dead was, pheri le-tā; māsākā tuwā, pheri tuwā.' again lived; lostwas, againfound.'

[No. 33.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

(DISTRICT DARJEELING.)

SPECIMEN II.

Khambuwan. Kongā O-thampu Mahākulung; ke $\mathbf{a}\mathbf{h}$ thāmpu-kā 1 Khambu. My-country Mahākulung; thiscountry-from passiũ hempā nau lākh Kirāt chimngā. O-thari bikkhosi, kongā west towardsninelakhKirānts are. My-caste bikkhosi, and hep-mi thari kholong kongā chhe-to-no. Kong Dārjīling bānā-ko other castesallI know-not. I Darjeeling came Kong barkha chhuwā. ikkhāl o-tel mang khāengā. O-thāmpu-pā I twenty years were. my-home went. My-country-in o-bu-chi o-mā o-pā ngippu. O-bu-chi-m ngippongā my-elder-brothers my-father my-mother two.My-elder-brothers-of both Ām-chhā-chi biyā chhuwā. O-thampu-pa chā-m-thokī $r\bar{a}$ Children marriage became. are. My-country-in eatable paddy bāmā longkupā makāi pesi sāpkhe yoksikhe khonto lissī tā-tue. millet maize buckwheat millet longkupā potatoes yoksikhe these-all found-are. binnīpā songā tuwe. Angka-chi-m nging chhe-to-no. others also These-from are. These-of nameknno-not.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

I am a Khambu. My country is Mahakulung, to the west of this country in the country called Nō lakh Kirāt.¹ My caste is Bikkhosi. I do not know our other castes. I came to Darjeeling twenty years ago, and I have not been home since that time. My father, my mother, and my two elder brothers live in my country. My brothers are both married and have children. There are several eatable plants in my country, such as paddy, marwā, maize, buckwheat, millet, longkupā, potatoes, yoksikhe, and also others, but I do not know their names.

² An old name of the Kırāt-country in Eastern Nepal. The phrase is interpreted to mean that a house-tax, at two annas per family, yielded nine hundred thousand annas.—Hodgson. See, how ver, above p. 316.

BĀHING.

The Bahings are one of the sub-tribes of the Khambus, who live in the Central Himalayas between the Likhu and Arun rivers in Nepal. We have no information about their number.

AUTHORITY-

Hodson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the Languages of the broken tribes of Nepál. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 317 and ff. (contains a Bāhing vocabulary on pp. 350 and ff.); pp. 486 and ff. (a full Bāhing vocabulary); Vol. xxvii, 1858, pp. 393 and ff. (Bāhing grammar). Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. London 1880, Vol. i, pp. 161 and ff. The short Bāhing vocabulary on pp. 194 and ff.; the full vocabulary and the grammar on pp. 320 and ff. The title of this latter part of the reprint is Analysis of the Bāhing Dialect of the Kiránti Language. A.—Bāhing Vocabulary (pp. 320 and ff.). Bāhing Grammar (pp. 353 and ff.).

Hodgson's essay contains a full sketch of Bāhing grammar and also a short specimen of the dialect. The latter will be reproduced below, together with an interlinear translation, which has been added by me. It is not quite certain in one or two places.

No new materials have been forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, and the remarks on Bāhing grammar which follow are entirely based on Hodgson's paper.

Pronunciation.—Bāhing possesses what Hodgson calls the pausing tone. It occurs in words such as the plural daa, in which the double a denotes an a pronounced with that tone.

I am not able to decide the precise value of the sound which Hodgson marks eu. In some cases he states that eu is the French eu; thus in words such as sheureu, neck; neu, nose; yeu, rat. Writings such as theum and thim, mind; seu, $s\bar{u}$ and $sy\bar{u}$, who? and so forth, however, seem to show that the pronunciation is rather that of u in French 'lune' or of \bar{u} in German 'Güte.'

Ya and ye are sometimes interchangeable; thus, yam and yem, this; $m\bar{a}ra\ d\bar{a}yena$ and $m\bar{a}ra\ d\bar{a}yana$, what saying? to wit, that is to say.

There are several cases of interchange between different consonants; thus, *ip-po*, sleep; *im-pāto*, make him sleep; *bwang-nga*, I am; *bwang-ye*, thou art; *bwak-se*, they two are; *bwam-me*, they are. Numerous instances of such interchange will be found in Hodgson's grammar, to which the student is referred for further details.

Prefixes and suffixes.—There are numerous prefixes and suffixes. The meaning of the prefixes cannot, in most cases, be ascertained. They have commonly been reduced to only containing a single consonant; thus, blocho, a bed; brepcho, finger; $br\bar{o}$, taste; grong, horn; $gr\bar{a}$, rope. The prefix \bar{a} in words such as \bar{a} - $r\bar{i}$, smell; \bar{a} -po, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother, etc., is originally a demonstrative pronoun or a possessive pronoun of the third person; compare $birma\ \bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}mi$, cat its-young, and so on.

Numerous suffixes are used in order to form participles and nouns from verbal bases.

A common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix cho; thus, dwak-cho, wish; mō-cho, figl.t; lī-cho, silence. The same or a different suffix occurs in words such as rūkok-cho, spade; lap-cho, door; rik-cho, bamboo; cho-cho, cheek; brep-cho, finger.

The suffix cha forms nouns of agency; thus, li-cha, bowman; khyim-cha, houseman, householder; war-cha, companion. It often has the same meaning as the suffix

ba which is used to form relative participles; thus, gik-ba, born, child; sing-chok-ba, carpenter; byang-si-kok-ba, cultivator; duk-ba, a drunkard, etc. It is probably related to wa in words such as $y\bar{a}$ -wa, elder brother; $t\bar{a}$ -wa, boy; $ry\bar{a}$ -wa, rain; $gy\bar{a}$ -wa, oil, etc.

The suffixes po and pau form masculine nouns of agency; thus, ryam-ni-po, an adulterer; dyal-pau, a villager. Corresponding feminines are formed by adding suffixes such as mi, mi-cha, and mo; thus, $khl\bar{u}$ -mi, widow; $l\bar{\iota}$ -mi-cha, a female bowman; ryam-ni-mo, an adulteress.

One of the most common suffixes is me or m. It is added to other words in order to form adjectives, relative participles, and nouns. Thus, kwong, one; kwong-me, the one; wake-me, my one, mine; teup-ba-me, the striking one, the striker; singke-me, sing-ke-m, the wooden one; e-ke-me, the here one, he who is here; rimba-me, the handsome one; sheo-di-m, mouth-in-the, belonging to the mouth; ye-m, this; mye-m, that; $r\bar{u}$ -di-m $kh\bar{a}n$, garden-in-the vegetables, the vegetables of the garden; pu-di-m $pv\bar{a}ku$, cup-in-the water, water of the cup; $kw\bar{a}$ -nga-me, different; bubu-m, white; lala-m, red; lala-m-me, the white one; ja-cho-me, eating-of, edible; dak-cho-me, desirable, and so forth.

Other common suffixes are chi, so, sa, si, niwa, etc. Thus, sichi, front; techi, groin; michi, eye; mīchi, joint; pokchi, knee, and other nouns denoting parts of the body: grōkso, thing; sōkso, anger; nokso, priest: phūrsa, frost; ploksa, lightning; būsa, snake; gupsa, tiger: ngāsi, beer; hūsi, blood; dhyāksi, tree; gyērsi, pleasure; yuksi, salt: khuncha-niwa, theft; krākra-niwa, witchcraft, and so forth.

Nouns—Gender.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes or qualifying words, such as $\bar{a}po$, father, male; $\bar{a}mo$, mother, female; nima, female, etc. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}k\bar{\imath}$, grandfather; $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}$, grandmother: wainsa, man; mincha, woman: $t\bar{a}$ -wa, boy; $t\bar{a}$ -mi, girl: $l\bar{\imath}cha$, bowman; $l\bar{\imath}$ -mi-cha, female bowman: $ch\bar{a}cha$, grandson; $ch\bar{a}cha$ -nima, grand-daughter: $\bar{a}po$ bing, bull; $\bar{a}mo$ bing, cow, etc.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the plural is daa, and that of the dual daa-si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -daa, children; $t\bar{a}$ -daa-si, two children.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the direct and indirect object are not distinguished by adding any suffix; thus, $ryamni-po\ d\bar{\imath}-ta$, the adulterer went; $h\bar{o}po-mi$ $h\bar{a}rem\ kw\bar{o}ng\ s\bar{\imath}si\ gip-t\bar{a}$, king-by him one phial gave. The word $h\bar{o}po-mi$, king-by, shows that the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix mi. The case of the agent is properly an instrumental; thus, sokti-mi, with force; jokso-ma-mi, wisely, and so forth.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, and usually also by repeating it by means of a possessive pronoun prefixed to the governing noun; thus, swongāra \bar{a} -grong, goat its-horn, goat's horn; wainsa-daa \bar{a} ni-ming, men their-wives, men's wives. A genitive is also formed by means of the suffix me, m; thus, rukokcho-m rīsing, spade's handle; $r\bar{u}$ -di-m $kh\bar{a}n$, the vegetables of the garden. If the governing noun is understood, the common suffix is ke; thus, wainsa-ke, the man's. We also find forms such as wainsa-ke \bar{a} -ning, man's his-name, a man's name.

A locative is formed by adding di, and a terminative by adding $l\bar{a}$; thus, khyim-di, in a house; $khyim-l\bar{a}$, towards, or at, the house. An ablative can be formed by adding

ng to either of these forms; thus, $syerte\ \bar{a}\ limbo\ ding$, hill its middle from; $lapcho\ lang$, from the door.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as $gw\bar{a}re$, within; taure, towards; nung, with; manthi, without; hateu-la, above; hayeu-la, below; gwayeu, under; gwayeung, from under, and so forth. They are often added to the genitive; thus, $mej\ \bar{a}$ -gwayeu, under the table.

Adjectives.—The most common suffixes used to form adjectives are ba, wa, cha, me or m, na, and ke; thus, neu-ba, good; $ng\bar{a}$ -wa, old; $g\bar{\imath}$ -cha, alone; $l\bar{e}cho$ -me, saleable; wang-me, different; keke-m, black; $p\bar{a}$ -na, manufactured; $k\bar{\imath}$ -na, cooked; ram-ke, bodily; sing-ke, wooden. It will be seen that most of them can be considered as participles.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, yam ding ngolo, him from great, greater than he; haupe ding kāchim, all from small, smallest.

Numerals.—The first numerals are :-

1 kwong; 2 niksi; 3 sam; 4 $l\bar{e}$; 5 $ng\bar{o}$; 6 rukba; 7 channi; 8 $y\bar{a}$; 9 $gh\bar{u}$; 10 kwaddyum; 20 $\bar{a}sim$; 30 $kwong \bar{a}sim kwong \bar{a}phlo$ (one score one its half); 40 niksi $\bar{a}sim$; 50 niksi $\bar{a}sim$ $\bar{a}phlo$; 60 sam $\bar{a}sim$; 100 $ng\bar{o}$ $\bar{a}sim$.

It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties, and that multiplication is indicated by prefixing the multiplicator. Addition is indicated by adding the smaller after the higher number; thus, niksi āsim āphlo niksi, two scores its half two, two and fifty.

Generic particles are very seldom added. Li is used with reference to various beings and things; sing denotes timber trees; $\bar{a}pum$ soft trees, grasses, vegetables, etc.; syal weapons and implements; bwom fruits; kha days, and so forth; thus, kwo-bwom seti sichi, one chestnut fruit; sam-kha namti, three days.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are in most respects inflected like nouns. The pronouns of the first person have double sets of the dual and the plural, one including and the other excluding the person or persons addressed.

The table which follows registers the principal forms of the personal pronouns.

	First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Sing. Nom.	$gar{o}$	gā	hārem
Gen.	wā (my), wā-ke (mine)	ī, ī-ke	ā, ā-ke, hārem-ke
Instr.	$gar{o}$ - mi	$gar{a}$ - mi	hārem-mi
Loc.	wā-ke-di	ĩ-ke-di	ā-ks-di, hārem-di
Term.	wā-ke-lā	$ar{\imath}$ - ke - $lar{a}$	ā-ke-lā, hārem-ke-lā
Abl.	wā-ke-ding, wā-ke-lang	ī-ke-ding, -lang	$ar{a}$ -ke-ding, harem-ding, etc.

	First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Dual Nom.	$gar{o}$ -si (incl.), $gar{o}$ -s $ar{u}kar{u}$ (excl.)	$gar{a}$ -s i	hārem daa-si
Gen.	ī-si, ī-si-ke (incl.) wā-si, wā-si-ke (excl.)	ī-si, ī-si-ke	ā-si, ā-si-ke, hīrem daa-si-ke
Instr.	gō-si-mi (incl.) gō-sūkū-mi (excl.)	$gar{a}$ -si-mi	hārem daa-si-mi
Plur. Nom.	$gar{o}$ - i (incl.) $gar{o}$ - $kar{u}$ (excl.)	$gar{a}$ - ni	hārem daa
Gen.	ike, ik-ke (incl.) waks, wak-ke (excl.)	ī-ni, ī-ni-ke	ā-ni, ā-ni-ke, hārem daa-ke
Instr.	gō-i-mi (incl.) gō-kū-mi (excl.)	gā-ni-mi	hārem daa-mi

It has already been noted that \bar{a} is also used as a common prefix before nouns governing a genitive. The words po, father, and mo, mother, become pa, ma, respectively, when governing a personal pronoun of the first person. In that case \bar{a} is used instead of $w\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} -pa, my father; \bar{a} -po, his father: \bar{a} -ma, my mother; \bar{a} -mo, his mother.

Hārem, he, she, it, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun meaning 'that.' Other demonstratives are yam or yem, this; myam or myem, that. They are inflected in the same way as hārem.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$, $sy\bar{u}$, or seu, *i.e.* probably $s\ddot{u}$, who? $m\bar{a}ra$, what? gyem, which? Gyem takes the prefix \bar{a} if it is used in the meaning 'which of these;' thus, \bar{a} -gyem-me $l\bar{a}di$, which of these will you take?

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead; thus, gyāwa dyam-patta-me sīsi, oil filled phial, a phial which had been filled with oil; gyāwa rī-nā-m myem rā-cho, oil smelling-one that to-bring, to bring him who smelt of oil.

Verbs.—It has already been remarked that there are no cases to denote the direct and indirect objects. Both are, however, marked in the verb by means of pronominal suffixes. The same is the case with the subject, and Bāhing conjugation therefore presents a rather complicated appearance; thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $w\bar{a}$, he does it; $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, he does it for him.

Each tense can be turned into a kind of noun by adding the suffix me; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, I eat him; $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -me, he whom I eat: ja- $ng\bar{a}$ -si, I eat them two; ja- $ng\bar{a}$ -si-me, those two whom I eat: $j\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$, he eats me; $j\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$ -me, I who am eaten by him.

Voice.—Bahing verbs can be said to possess an active, a passive, and a middle. The difference between the active and the passive is, however, only apparent, it being

effected by adding different personal suffixes denoting the subject or the object. Thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, eat-I, I eat him; $j\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{i} , eat-me, I am eaten. The middle is formed by adding a suffix s or si and conjugating as usual.

In order to conjugate a Bāhing verb it is therefore necessary to know the pronominal suffixes indicating the subject and the object. If more than one suffix is added to one and the same form, the suffix of the first person comes before that of the second, that of the second before that of the third. The suffixes of the subject and the object are sometimes different, and sometimes also identical. It will therefore be most convenient to deal with them together.

Subject and Object.—A subject of the first person singular is indicated by means of different suffixes. In the present tense of intransitive and reflexive verbs $ng\bar{a}$ is added to the base; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-ng\bar{a}$, I come; $r\bar{u}-ng\bar{a}$, I am satisfied; $b\bar{o}ng-ng\bar{a}$, I get up; $teum-si-ng\bar{a}$, I beat myself. The same is the case in some transitive verbs ending in a vowel, and which insert a suffix w or p in order to denote an object of the third person; thus, $t\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, I find him; $p\bar{a}-ng\bar{a}$, I do it; $s\bar{\imath}-ng\bar{a}$, I seize him. The common suffix with transitive verbs is, however, \bar{u} ; thus, $br\bar{e}t-\bar{u}$, I summon him; $d\bar{a}t-\bar{u}$, I seize him. The same suffix is also used with some intransitive verbs ending in d and d; thus, $myeld-\bar{u}$, I am sleepy; $b\bar{o}t-\bar{u}$, I flower; $kh\bar{\imath}t-\bar{u}$, I blow, etc.

The suffix in the past tense of transitive verbs is $\bar{o}ng$; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -t- $\bar{o}ng$, I at him.

In the past tense of intransitive and reflexive verbs and in the whole passive the suffix of the first person is $\bar{\imath}$, or, after vowels, nasals, r and l, $y\bar{\imath}$; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-t-\bar{\imath}$, I came; $j\bar{a}-s-t-\bar{\imath}$, I at emyself; $j\bar{a}-y-\bar{\imath}$, I am eaten; $j\bar{a}-t-\bar{\imath}$, I was eaten.

A subject of the first person singular is not separately marked if the object is of the second person.

An object of the dual and plural of the third person is indicated by adding si, mi, respectively, to the forms given above; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -t- $\bar{o}ng$ -mi, I at them. The same suffixes are also used to denote the subject in the passive; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -t- \bar{i} -si, I was eaten by them two. A subject of the second and third persons singular is not, in that case, separately marked. Si also denotes an agent of the second person dual, and ni of the second person plural in the first person passive; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{i} -ni, I am eaten by you.

A subject of the first person dual excluding the person addressed is marked by adding the suffix $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, or, after s, $ch\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, in the active, and siki in the passive; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he come; $j\bar{a}-s-ch\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he eat ourselves; $j\bar{a}-ta-si-ki$, we two were eaten. It will be seen that $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$ is the same suffix as is added in the pronoun $g\bar{o}-s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$, I and he. Siki is the corresponding suffix of the object. The interchange between $s\bar{u}k\bar{u}$ and siki is parallel to that between \bar{u} and $\bar{\imath}$ in the singular.

Forms such as $br\bar{e}te-si$, we two summon thee; $br\bar{e}ti-si-si$, we two summon you two; breti-ni-si, we two summon you; brette-si, we summoned thee, and so forth, apparently contain a suffix si denoting an agent of the exclusive first person dual. The same forms are, however, also used if the subject is of the third person dual. The suffix si being the regular suffix of that person, or rather a simple dual suffix without reference to person, there can be no doubt that forms such as those just mentioned do not contain a suffix of the first person dual, but are common dual forms without any restriction as to the person of the subject.

If the person addressed is included the suffix of the first person dual is sa, after s cha, passive so; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -sa, we eat; $p\bar{\imath}$ -sa, we come; $n\bar{\imath}$ -s-cha, we sit down; $br\bar{e}ti$ -so, we are summoned; $brett\bar{a}$ -so, we were summoned.

The suffix of the first person plural excluding the person or persons addressed is $k\bar{a}$, past ko, passive ki; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-k\bar{a}$, we come; $n\bar{\imath}si-k\bar{a}$, we sit down; $j\bar{a}-k-t\bar{a}-ko$, we ate; $pi-k-t\bar{a}-ko$, we came; $n\bar{\imath}-s-t\bar{a}-ko$, we sat down; $br\bar{e}ti-ki$, we are summoned; $j\bar{a}k-t\bar{a}-ki$, we were eaten. It will be seen that the k of this suffix is also inserted before the $t\bar{a}$ of the past tense if $t\bar{a}$ is not preceded by a consonant.

The suffix of the first person plural is replaced by that of the third if the object is of the second person; thus, $br\bar{e}tte-mi$, we, or they, called thee; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}-ni-mi$, we or they called you.

The suffix of the first person plural including the person or persons addressed is ya, past yo, passive so. In verbs ending in a vowel an n is inserted before the $t\bar{a}$ of the past in the active, and a k in the passive. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}-ya$, we come; $n\bar{\imath}-si-ya$, we sit down; $j\bar{a}-n-t\bar{a}-yo$, we ate; $j\bar{a}-k-t\bar{a}-so$, we were eaten; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}-so$, we were summoned.

It will be seen that a subject of the first person is not separately marked if the object is of the second person. An object of the third person singular is understood in the forms mentioned above. If it is of the dual or plural, the suffixes si, mi, respectively, are added to the suffix of the first person. The same suffixes are also added to the passive suffixes of the first person in order to indicate the agent. Thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -si, I eat them two; $brett\bar{a}$ -ki-mi, we were summoned by them.

If the subject is of the second person singular the suffixes added to transitive verbs are $\bar{\imath}$, past eu. The corresponding suffix with intransitive verbs and in the passive is \bar{e} ; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -y- $\bar{\imath}$, eatest; $j\bar{a}$ -p-t-eu, atest; $n\bar{\imath}$ -s- \bar{e} , sittest; $p\bar{\imath}$ -y- \bar{e} , comest; $j\bar{a}$ -y- \bar{e} , art eaten; $j\bar{a}$ -t- \bar{e} , wast eaten; $n\bar{\imath}$ -s-t- \bar{e} , was sitting. Forms such as $s\bar{a}$ -n- \bar{e} , wast killed; $ng\bar{\imath}$ -n- \bar{e} , art afraid, show that the original suffix was perhaps $n\bar{e}$.

The p preceding the t of the past tense in $j\bar{a}$ -p-t-eu, atest, probably denotes an object of the third person. An object and a subject of the third persons dual and plural are indicated in the same way as with a subject of the first person; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -y- $\bar{\imath}$ -mi, eatest them; $br\bar{e}tte$ -si, wast summoned by them two, etc.

If the object is of the first person the corresponding passive forms of the first person are used; thus, brēttā-ki, summonedest us.

If the subject is of the first person singular, an object of the second person is indicated by adding na; thus, $br\bar{e}ti$ -na, art summoned by me. In the past tense of verbs ending in a vowel, n is also inserted before the suffix $t\bar{a}$ of the past; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -n- $t\bar{a}$ -na, wast found by me. Such forms are properly passives, and the restriction in their use to such cases in which the subject is of the first person singular, is apparently a secondary departure of the dialect.

The suffix of the second person dual is si, or, after s, chi; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -si, you two find him, are found by him; $t\bar{a}$ -si-mi, you two find them, are found by them; $n\bar{\imath}$ -s-chi, you two sit; $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -si, you two ate, were eaten, etc. Such forms are used as active and passive tenses.

If the object is of the first person, si is added to the passive forms used with a subject of the first person; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -y- $\bar{\imath}$ -si, you two find me; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -siki-si, we two were summoned by you two. The suffix si is added to the na used when the object is of the

second person singular, if the subject is of the first person singular; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -n- $t\bar{a}$ -na-si, you two were found by me.

The suffix of the second person plural is ni. Its use is parallel to that of si; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -ni, you find him, are found by him; $n\bar{i}$ -si-ni, you sit down; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -siki-ni, we two were summoned by you; $br\bar{e}tt\bar{a}$ -na-ni, you were summoned by me.

The suffixes of the second persons dual and plural are se, ne, respectively, in the imperative; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -se, eat you two; $j\bar{a}$ -ne, eat ye. It seems probable that the forms ending in e are the real active forms, and that si, ni, are properly suffixes of the object, or passive suffixes.

A subject of the third person singular is only distinguished in the verb if it is intransitive, or if the object is of the third person. In other cases the passive forms mentioned above under the head of the first two persons are used.

If the object is of the third person, and in intransitive verbs, a subject of the third person singular is commonly distinguished by the absence of any suffix; thus, jyul, he places him; $p\bar{\imath}$, he comes. Transitive bases ending in vowels and surd consonants add an \bar{a} in the present; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -w- \bar{a} , he finds him; $s\bar{a}d$ - \bar{a} , he kills him. The same is the case in intransitives ending in d and t; thus, myeld- \bar{a} , he is sleepy. The termination in reflexive bases is $s\bar{e}$, thus, $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{e}$, he sits down. The termination of the third person of the past is $t\bar{a}$; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -p- $t\bar{a}$, he ate him. The p preceding the $t\bar{a}$ in such forms only occurs in verbs ending in a vowel. It is perhaps a suffix denoting an object of the third person, and connected with the w inserted between the base and the suffix \bar{a} of the third person singular of verbs ending in vowels; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -w- \bar{a} , he eats. This w, and also the suffix \bar{a} , is dropped before suffixes denoting an agent of the third person dual and plural; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $w\bar{a}$ -mi, he finds them; but $t\bar{a}$ -me, he is found by them.

The suffix of the third person dual is se, or, after s, che, in the active, and si in the passive. Si is also used in the active if the object is of the first or second persons. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}-se$, they two come; $n\bar{\imath}-s-che$, they two sleep; $j\bar{a}-t\bar{a}-se-si$, they two were eaten by them two; $t\bar{a}-t-\bar{\imath}-si$, they two found me; $t\bar{a}-t\bar{a}-si-si$, they two found you two, and so forth. The suffix si is always used to denote the object. If there are two suffixes of the third person dual or plural, one denoting the subject and the other the object, the former precedes. Thus, $br\bar{e}t\bar{u}-si$, I summon them two; $br\bar{e}ti-se-si$, they two summon them two.

The suffixes of the third person plural are me and mi which are distinguished in the same way as se and si; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-me$, they come; $n\bar{\imath}-s-t\bar{a}-me$, they sat; $t\bar{a}-p-t\bar{a}-mi$, he found them, they were found; $br\bar{e}ti-mi$, they summoned me; $br\bar{e}ti-se-mi$, they were summoned by them two. In verbs ending in vowels an m is also inserted before the suffix of the past; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-m-t\bar{a}-me$, they came; $j\bar{a}-m-t\bar{a}-me$, they ate.

The preceding remarks will have shown how the various persons are indicated by means of suffixes added to the verb, and how those suffixes sometimes denote the subject and sometimes the object. If the object is indirect, a t is added to the base; thus, $teub-\bar{a}$, he strikes him; $teup-t-\bar{a}$, he strikes for him. Such verbs as end in t do not distinguish between the direct and indirect objects.

Tense.—The Bāhing verb only has two tenses, a present and a past. The present is also used as a future. The past is formed by adding a suffix $t\bar{a}$, or, before suffixes beginning with vowels, t, to the base. A preceding sound is changed in various ways.

The table which follows registers the singular of the present and past of the active and passive of the verbs blāwo, take; pīwo, come; kwēngo, see; pōkko, raise; bōkko, get up; phyērro, sew; jyullo, place; teuppo, beat; rappo. stand up; brēto, summon; sāto, kill; ngīto, be afraid; gramdo, hate; myeldo, be sleepy; nīso, sit down.

	A	ACTIVE.	P	ASSIVE.
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past
1.	blā-ngā	blāp-t-öng	blā-y- ī	blā-t-ī
2.	$blar{a}$ - y - $ar{\imath}$	blāp-t-eu	blā~y-ē	$blar{a}$ - t - $ar{e}$
3.	blā-wā	blāp-tā	blā-w-ā	blā-tā
1.	p ī -ngā	$par{\imath}$ - $tar{\imath}$		
2.	p i- y - $ar{e}$	p ī-t-ē		
3.	pi	<i>pī-t-ā</i>		
1.	pōg-ū	pōk-t-ōng	pōng-y- ፣	pōk-t-š
2.	$oldsymbol{p}ar{o}g extbf{-}oldsymbol{i}$	põk-t-eu	$oldsymbol{par{o}}oldsymbol{ng} ext{-}oldsymbol{v} ext{-}ar{oldsymbol{e}}$	<i>pōk-t-ē</i>
3.	<i>pōg-ā</i>	$par{o}k$ - $tar{a}$	$par{o}g$ - $ar{a}$	$par{\circ}k$ - t - $ar{a}$
1.	bōng-ng ā	$bar{o}k$ - t - $ar{\imath}$		
2.	$b ar{o} ng$ - ng - $ar{e}$	$bar{o}k$ - t - $ar{e}$		
3.	bōng	$bar{o}k$ - $tar{a}$		
1.	phyēr-ū	phyēr-t-ōng	phyēr-y-ī	phyēr-t-ī
2.	phyēr-ī	phyēr-t-eu	phyēr-ē	phyēr-t-ē
3.	phy ēr	phyēr-tā	$phyar{e}r$	phyēr-tā
1.	jyul-ū	jyul-t-ōng	jyul-y-ī	jyul-t-ī
2.	$jyul$ - $ar{\imath}$	jynl-t-eu	jyul-ē	jyul-t-ē
3.	jyul	jyul-tā	jyul	jyul-tā
1.	teub-ū	teup-t-ōng	teum-yī	teup-t-i
2.	teub-ī	teup-t-eu	teum-ē	tcup-t-ē
3.	teub-ā	teup-tā	teub-ā	$teup$ - $tar{a}$

	A	ACTIVE.	Passive.		
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
1.	ram-ngā	rap-t-ī			
2.	ram - $ar{e}$	$rap ext{-}ar{e}$			
3.	ra m	rap-tā			
1.	brēt-ū	brēt-t-ō ng	brēt-ī	brēt-t-ī	
2.	$brar{e}t$ - $ar{\imath}$	brēt-t-eu	brēt-ē	brēt-t-ē	
3.	brēt-ā	$brar{e}t$ - $tar{a}$	brēt-ā	brēt-tā	
1.	sād-ū	sā-t-ōng	ะ ā- yī	sā-t-ī	
2.	s $ar{a}d$ - $ar{\imath}$	sā-t-eu	sān-ē	sā-t-ē	
3.	$sar{a}d$ - $ar{a}$	$sar{a}$ - $tar{a}$	sād-ā	รล ิ- tลิ	
1.	ng ī-ngã	ng ī-t-ī			
2.	$ngar{\imath}$ - n - $ar{e}$	ngĩ-t-ē			
3.	ngi	ngī-tā			
1.	$gramd$ - $ar{u}$	gram-t-ōng	gra m d-ī	gram-t-ī	
2.	g ram d - $ar{\imath}$	gram-t-eu	$gramd$ - $ar{e}$	gram-t-ë	
3.	gram $d extcolor{a}$	$gram ext{-}tar{a}$	g ram d - $ar{a}$	gram-tā	
1.	myeld-ū	myel-t-ī			
2.	$mysld$ - $ar{\imath}$	mye l- t - $ar{e}$			
3.	my el $d extcolor{a}$	$myel ext{-}tar{a}$			
1.	$nar{\imath}$ - si - $ngar{a}$	nī-s-t-ī			
2.	ท เิ-s-ē	nī-s-t - ē			
3.	$n ar{\imath}$ -s- $ar{e}$	$nar{\imath}$ -s- $tar{a}$			

Other tenses are formed by adding the verb substantive to a participle. The bases of the verb substantive are $k\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{e}$, $ng\bar{o}$, and $bw\bar{a}$, but only the last one is used as an auxiliary. It is added to a participle ending in $s\bar{o}ngo$, which denotes continuity, in order to form a present definite and imperfect; thus, $br\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}ngo$ bwang- $ng\bar{a}$, I am summoning; $p\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{o}ngo$ bwak-t- $\bar{\imath}$, I was coming.

The table which follows shows how the	personal	suffixes	are added in	the present
and past of the verb $j\bar{a}$ -cho, to eat.				•

	ACTIVE.		P.	ASSIVE.	REPLEXIVE.		
	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
Sing. 1.	$jar{a}$ - $ngar{a}$	jā-t-ōng	$jar{a}$ - $oldsymbol{y}$ - $oldsymbol{i}$	jā-t-ī	$jar{a}$ -si-ng $ar{a}$	$jar{a}$ -s-t- $ar{\imath}$	
2.	$jar{a}$ - y - $ar{\imath}$	jā-p-t-eu	j	$jar{a}$ - t - $ar{e}$	$jar{\imath}$ -s $ar{e}$	$jar{a}$ -s-t- $ar{e}$	
3.	$jar{a}$ - $war{a}$	$jar{a}$ - p - $tar{a}$	jā-wī	jā-p-tā	$jar{a}$ -s $ar{e}$	jā-s-tā	
Dual 1. excl.	$jar{a}$ - $sar{u}kar{u}$	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - $sar{u}kar{u}$	jā-siki	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - $siki$	$jar{a}$ -s-ch $ar{u}kar{u}$	jā-s-tā-sūkū	
1. incl.	jā-sā	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - $sar{a}$	jā-so	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - so	$jar{a}$ -s-c $har{a}$	$jar{a}$ -s- $tar{a}$ -s $ar{z}$	
2.	jā-si	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - si	jā-si	$jar{a}$ - $tar{a}$ - si	jā-s-chi	$jar{a}$ -s- $tar{a}$ -s i	
3.	jā-se	jā-tā-se	$jar{a}$ - $war{a}$ - si	$jar{a} ext{-}p ext{-}tar{a} ext{-}soldsymbol{i}$	jā-s-che	jā-s-tā-se	
Plural 1. excl.	$jar{a}$ - $kar{a}$	$jar{a}$ - k - $tar{a}$ - k o	jā-ki	jā-k-tā-ki	$jar{a}$ -si-k $ar{a}$	jā-s-tā-ko	
1. incl.	$oldsymbol{j}ar{a}$ - ya	$jar{a}$ - n - $tar{a}$ - y o	jā-so	$jar{a}$ - k - $tar{a}$ - so	jā-si-ya	$jar{a}$ -s- $tar{a}$ -yo	
2.	$jar{a}$ - ni	$jar{a}$ - n - $tar{a}$ - ni	$jar{a}$ - ni	$jar{a}$ - n - $tar{a}$ - ni	jā-si-ni	$jar{a}$ -s- $tar{a}$ - ni	
3.	j ā-me	jā-m-tā-me	jā-wā-mi	$jar{a}$ - p - $tar{a}$ - mi	jā-si-me	$jar{a}$ -s- $tar{a}$ -me	

Imperative.—The second person singular ends in o before which a preceding single consonant is doubled. The forms $bl\bar{a}wo$, take; $p\bar{\imath}wo$, come, etc., given above on p. 334, are such imperatives. An object of the third person dual and plural is expressed in the usual way; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -wo-mi, eat them. If the object is of the first person, the corresponding passive forms of the first person present are used; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{\imath}$, find me; $t\bar{a}$ -siki, find us two; $t\bar{a}$ -ki, find us.

The suffix of the second person dual of the imperative is se, reflexive che, and that of the second person plural ne; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -se-si, ye two eat them two; $n\bar{i}$ -s-che, sit down ye two; $j\bar{a}$ -ne, eat ye. If the object is of the first person, passive forms are used; thus, $t\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$ -ni, find me ye.

Verbal Nouns.—The usual verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix cho; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -cho, to eat. Another suffix ne is common in connexion with verbs meaning to begin, to end, to wish, and so forth; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -ne $pr\bar{e}n$ -si- $ng\bar{a}$, I shall begin to eat; $j\bar{a}$ -ne theum- \bar{u} , I shall have done eating; $j\bar{a}$ -ne-dwak-t- $\bar{o}ng$, I wished to eat. In forms such as $ply\bar{e}nti$ givo, release give; khlyakti giptāko, anoint given-having, having anointed, the base alone is used as a verbal noun. Purpose is expressed by adding the suffix tha; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -tha $l\bar{a}$ -ti, to eat I went.

Participles.—The common suffixes of relative participles are ba and na; thus, gik-ba, born; kik-ba, begetting; $j\bar{a}$ -si-ba, eating oneself; $j\bar{a}$ -na, eaten; $j\bar{a}$ -si-na, self-eaten. Verbal nouns and tenses can be turned into relative participles by adding the suffix me, m; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -cho-me, eatable; $j\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -mi-me, those whom I eat, and so forth.

An adverbial participle is formed by adding so or so-mami; thus, teu-so or teu-so-mami, wisely; neuba pā-so-mami, good doing, well, etc.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding na and ko to the tenses; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{i}$ -na $br\bar{e}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, being eaten I shall cry out; $j\bar{a}$ -t- \bar{o} ng-na $p\bar{i}$ -t- \bar{i} , eating it I came; $br\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -ko $m\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{a}$, having summoned him he said to him.

Causals.—Causals are often formed from intransitive bases by hardening the initial consonant; thus, dokko, fall; tokko, cause to fall; $g\bar{\imath}kko$, be born; $k\bar{\imath}kko$, beget; bokko, get up; pokko, raise.

Other causals are formed by adding t or d to the base. Thus, $p\bar{\imath}wo$, come; $p\bar{\imath}to$, bring: $r\bar{a}wo$, come; $r\bar{a}to$, bring: $t\bar{u}ngo$, drink; $t\bar{u}ndo$, cause to drink: $n\bar{\imath}so$, sit; $n\bar{\imath}to$, set.

Every verb can be made causative by adding $p\bar{a}to$, do; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}to$, cause him to eat.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}$ -ne-mi, don't ye eat them; $m\bar{a}$ ja-ng \bar{a} , I do not eat.

For further details the student is referred to Hodgson's grammar and to the specimen which follows. A list of words will be found on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 34.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KHAMBU.

Bahing Dialect.

(B. H. Hodgson, 1857.)

mūryeu hopo-ke-di brētha lātā. Gyekho-paso brētha Kwöng One rāja-to to-complain went. How-doing to-complain man ' Wā dāya-na? khyim-di kwong mūryeu rā-sōngo bwak-tã-ko saying? Myhouse-in onecoming-continually man been-having wā ming nung dwang-mo-se. Gō hārem gyānaiyo \mathbf{m} ā tā-ngā wifewithlove-each-other-they-two. Ihimever my not find- $oldsymbol{I}$ **I-k**e syū syū. nyau āsra jājulso mvem sī-cho lāma,' who. Thee-of justice confidence who putting thatseize-to let-me-go (?),' dāso binti pā ptā. Moko-ding hōpo-mi hārem kwong ľĺ nyūba saying requestmade. Thereupon king-by him one smellgoodgyāwa dyam-pāttā-me sīsi gip-tā-ko chyan-tā, 'yem sīsi ī ming bottleoilfilledgiven-having said, 'this *bottle* thy wife gip-tā-ko, "syū-yo $m\bar{a}$ giwo." dāso lō-pā-so giwo.' Härem " anyone give,"given-having, notsaying talking give.' That mūryeu-mi myemkhōngo pāp-tā. Hopo-mi yо chiwacha-daa man-by thatmanner did.King-by alsospies brētā-mi-ko chyan-tā-mi, svu-ke dirī nyūba gyāwa rī-nām called-them-having said-to-them, whom-of insmellgoodoilsmelling-the mvem rā-cho. bring-to. him

Meke-ding ryam-nipo bēla kwōso-mami ming-ke-di dī-ta. Myem Thereafter adulterer time seeing wife-to ivent. That wā-di rī ming-mi nyūba gyawa khlyakti gip-tā-ko mō-cho cloth-in goodwife-by smelloilanointing given-having say-to prens-ta māra-dāya-na, ' wā wancha-mi syū mā owip möti-me beganwhat-saying, 'my husband-by anyone not giresaid-to-me-who bwā. Nākā gā ram- $kh\bar{o}me$ wā bwang, ī kam-di ra-khēda Butthouis. mybody-as art, sake-for comes-if kam-di ra? svū-ke dā-tā (or mō-tā). Mēke-ding ryamnī-po sake-for whosecomes?' said(said). Thereupon adultererglūtā-na chiwacha-daa-mi khyim-ding ā rī tam-ta-me-komyem house-from issuing spies-by hissmellfound-having-they him sim-tā-me-ko hōpo-ke-di cho-tha dim-tā-me. seized-having-they king-of-to bring-to went-they.

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brētā-ko mōtā, 'yem ĩ Mēke-ding hōpo-mi ā wancha said, 'this Thereupon king-by her husband called-having thy khedda, khedda, chyaro; dwak-ti plyenti giwo,' rvam-nī-po; dwak-ti wishest releasewife's-lover; wishest-for-him if, kill; if, give, (or plyenotako) dāso dātā. saying said.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A certain man went to his prince to complain saying, 'a certain man is in the habit of coming to my house to make love to my wife, and I can never contrive to identify him. I rely on your justice to have that man arrested.' The Rājā then gave him a phial filled with scented oil and said to him, 'give this phial to your wife and caution her not to give it to anyone.' The man did so, and the Rājā instructed his spies to seize any person whose clothes had the scent of otto.

By and by the lover, finding an opportunity, went to his mistress. She rubbed the atter on his clothes and said, 'my husband desired me to give this atter to no one, but you are my life; to whom should I give it if not to you?' Then the lover left the house, and the spies, smelling the otto, seized him and brought him to the king. The king sent for the husband and said, 'this is your wife's lover. If you please, kill him, if you please, let him go.'

MINOR KHAMBU DIALECTS.

It has already been remarked that Hodgson has published vocabularies of several minor Khambu dialects, and it will be of interest to insert short notes on them in this place. One of them, the so-called Kūlung, mainly agrees with the dialect described above on pp. 317 and ff, and another, the so-called Dūmi, is essentially identical with the dialect described in what follows under the head of Rāi.

The information collected in the ensuing pages is very unsatisfactory, and numerous points connected with the grammar of the various dialects remain unsettled.

The materials are not sufficient for describing the phonetic system of the various dialects. The so-called abrupt tone occurs in all of them. It has been indicated by means of an 'after the syllable so pronounced; thus, Bālāli pih', cow. The marking of this tone, and the spelling generally, is, however, inconsistent, and I have not been able to introduce consistency.

The various sounds are, on the whole, marked as elsewhere in this Survey. I have, however, retained the writing eu because I am not certain about its proper pronunciation. Hodgson sometimes describes it as the French eu in 'jeu.' It seems, however, often to be a way of writing the \ddot{u} in German 'Güte.' I have therefore preferred to retain Hodgson's spelling.

Hodgson also mentions the pausing tone. It has been indicated by doubling the vowel so pronounced; thus, Bālāli $k\delta\delta$, this.

A short note on each dialect will be given in the ensuing pages. In this place it will be convenient to print a short comparative vocabulary of all of them.

COMPARATIVE VOCABULARY OF MINOR KHAMBU DIALECTS.

	Bālāli.	Sāngpāng.	Löhöröng.	Lāmbichhōng.	Wāling.	Chhingtang.	Rängchhenb ü ng.
One	$ik'kar{n}$	itta, euli, eukla-p a ng	yekko	thīli, thibang	aktai, akta	t hītta	eukchha, eukpop, eukta.
Two	hich'che	hich'chi, hissali, hisalapang	hich'chi, hippang	hich'chi, hippang	ni, hasa, hasak	hīchche	heuwang, heusa, heuwapop
Three	sũng'-che	sūm'chi, samkali, samkalapang	sumchi, sumpang	sū m'chi, sum bang	syum'yak	sūmche	sumya, s um pang sumkapo p
	līji	lākkabo, lakkali, lakalapang	līchi, r īchi, libang		1āyak		lānya, la-wang, la-wapop
Five	ngāji	ngākabo, ngākali, ngakalapang	ngāchi, ngabang		ngāyak		ngāya. ngawang ngakapop
Six	tūk'chi	tūkkabo, tukkali, tukalapang	tūkchi, tuppang		tūkyak	1	tūkya, tukwang, tukapop
Seven	กนีว่า	nūkkabo, nukkali, nukkalapang	nūchi, nuvang			1	b hāng- ya, bhāng-wang, bhang- ka po p
Eight	yēchi	rekabo, rekkali, rekkalapang	yēchi, yepang	1			re-ya, re-wang, re-kapop
X ine	bāng'ji		bāng-chi, bang-pang		1		phang-ya, -wang,-pop
Ten	īp'pong		īp'pong		'		kipu, kip; dheuk-ya, -pang,-kapop
Twenty			nībong	1	1		
Forty			rik'pong				
Fifty			ngāk'pong				
Hundred			ippong-pong			1	
I	kāngā, kā	kāngā	kāngā. kā	kāngā. kā	ingka, angka	$ar{m{a}}ar{m{k}}ar{m{a}}$	unka, angka, ang
Thou	ānā	ānā	hānā, ānā	khānā	hānā, khānā	hānā	khānā
Who?	āsā, āsālo	āsā, āsāle	āsī	sēong	dei	sālō, hok-kogo	s.īng
What?	ñkha	y en	imang	thīya	tikwa	thēm	diyē
How much?	aptoklo	dāhile	yehwa		tem, dem	ãsuk	dēmye
Anybody	ล ึรลิทย	สิรจิ-รลัทฐ	สิรลิ-รลิทศ	sī-chhā	asak-chhū	sālō-yāng	sängchhäng
Anything	ūkhāng	yo-sang	imāng-sāng	thī-chhā	tiik-chhū	thēm-yāng	dichhāng
Bird	chhōngwā	chhōngwā	sōnqw ī	กอิพสิ	chhongwã	. พลิรส	chhōngwa
Blool	h ēlluw a	ħī	hāri	hāli	hī, hā	hāli	hā, hēu

D ū ngm ā li.	Rödöng.	Nāchhērēng.	Kūlung.	Thūlung.	Chouras'ya.	Khāling.	Dāmi
ak'po	aūra, itto	ībhou	ubū m	kwong, kong, kolr	kolo	tau, t ā wo	tāu, tawa
hīchi	hā kara	nīsbhou	nih'chi	ní, nīchi, nale	nik'si	sakpo	sak'pu
sũm'chi	sūm'ra	sūk'bhou	sup'chi	s yūm, sule	sūm'makha	sūkpo	sūk'po
līchi, richi	lyūra	lik'bhou	līchi	blī, ble u -le	phībakha	$bh\bar{a}l$	bhyāl
ngāchi	ngār a	ngāk'bhou	ngāchi	ngo, ngolo		bhong	bhūong
tuk'chi	tūk' kara	4	tūk'chi	ro, ru, rule		rē	rāwong
	raikara		nūchi	seren, ser, serle		$tar{a}r$	rē
	bhok' kara		rechi	yen, yet, yetle		rin	rī
***************************************			bong'chi	gū, gale		ลูน์นี้	
			uk'bong	k(w)ong-dyūm		ta ḍ ha m	
				k(w)ong u-sang		khāl-taū, kāl	
		_		naa·sang		khāl sākpo	
	I	1		naasang ko-dyūm		khāl sāk po tau dham.	·
	1			ngo-sung		khālbhong	I
ang'-ka, ing'-ka	ingka, kāngā, kā	kāngā, kā	kongā	go	 นิกg-gñ	\bar{u} ng	ūng, āng-n gu
ānā	khānā	$\bar{a}n\bar{a}$	āna	gāna	ngome, й п и	 in	in, ānu
āg, kh ig o	sa	$ar{a}s$	ā sē	syū, ūhem	~	khām	syū, syūgo
igo	$d\bar{a}ko$	$ar{u}lar{e}$	ūso, ūi	$ \hbar ar{a} m{m}$	āmā	mangga	mimnga
e m	dūmno	dēl	dēiye, dēi	hala, hayu, hamko	āskwalo	hebe	hebe
āg•chhang	isāma, sõi	īsā	āso, ās	sy u bwa	āchū-yē	<i>ธนิเ่-</i> ขูง	<i>syū-yō</i>
chhang	dē-ī, dyeu nyū	นิร น ิ	\vec{u} so	hambwa	ā mā - yē	māng-yō	
lhōngw ā	wāsa	c h hōwa	ch h õwa	chakp u	chakbwa	salpo	salpa
$ar{i}$	hī, hāa	ħī	hī	sīsī	นึงนึ	. hī	hī.

	Balali.	Sängpäng.	Lököröng.	Lāmbichhõng.	Wāling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngchhönbüng.
hild	pa-chhā, pi-chhā	chhāchhe-chhā	pa	chhā	chhāchi	chhāche	chhāchi
lock	wāpā	wäpā	wāpa	impa-wā	vāpā	r anggāba	wāpā
Cow	pih'	pī .	pik	pih'	gai	pit'	pit, pih'
Daugh ter	mimāchhāchhā	mimāc h hāchhā	mennum-ma pasa	mēchchhāchhā	mā-chhā	mēch'chhā-chhā	mēch'chhā- chhāchhā
Day	iētta	um-lēpa	lēntā, len	ilēmba	wokholē, nāmdīya	nām	ukholēn
D ₀ g	kōchūmā	hāāga, hōga	hũ'wã	kochū	kōtima, kōchūwā	kōchūwā	kōchūwā
Ear	naba	naba	nāba (k)	noro	nāphāk	nārek	nāba
Egg	wā-dīn	di	wēh'-dĩ	thin, wäthin	dim	u-thīn	u-dīng, wā-dīn
Eye	mūik, mūh'	māk, mūh'	mik	mik, mih'	mak	mak	mak, maāk
Face	ngācheh'	ngāba	ngàchyāk, ngēchi	nāphāk	ngālāng	ngālūng	ngālūng
Fire	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi	mi
Fish	ngā	ngā	ngāsā	ngāsā	ngā	ngāsā	ngā
Foot	lāk', lāng	เลี	lāng	lãng	lāng	lāng	lānọ
Goat	mīthibā	chhānggara	mīthuba	mēndi	bākara	mē#dība	chhēnggara
Grain	chāma	chāma	chā, bujā	chā-ma, būja	chā	kwak, kok	chāmā
Hair	tangā, chā-mi, mūng	mwa, tāmu sām	tanga', mih'	mung, tang-phū- kwa	tāng-mūwa	tang'-phū kwa	māa
Hand	huk', huk	huh'	huh'	mūk, muh'	chhūk	$m\bar{u}k$	chhuk .
Head	tākhlo	tā k hūlo	tākhrok'. ningtangwa	tāng	tāng	tāng	tīng
Hog	bāh'	bhā	bak', ba'	phāk	bōk, phā, khong	phak	$b\bar{a}$
Horn	sātāng	tä	tang	sīnga	khūūng-tāng, atam'mi khak	sing'ga	u-sang'-ga
House	khim	khim	khim	khim	khim	Lhim	khim
Hunger	säge	sīka	sīk'	sāk'	sāang-sāwā	รอกอุรลิพ อ ิ	sāā, sūng-sāwā
Man	wāthāppa, wāthākpa	พลังโงโล้ลี	wāthāppa, wāthangpa	pā, pāchhi	a-dūwa	pā	d û wachhā
Moon	lā	Įā.	lā.	lādība	lādīma	lāthība	lādīma
Mountain	yākp ŭ	bhūri	kongku, sani	ะลีทggv	dãda	tour	bhar
Mouth	y ā	ngo	\$.I	yīsi	tuō, do	thurum	$d\tilde{o}$
Name	nang	ла	ning	ning	nang	nang	nang

Düngmāli.	Rōd ōng.	Nāchhērēng.	Kūlung.	Thulung.	Chouras'ya.	Khāling.	Dāmi
chhāche	chhāchi	chhāmūwa	mukcha, chhā- chhā-ma.	chwē-chwe	bēb a	ūchyē	chyō-chyo
ūmbhā- wā	wāpā	wāpā	vāpā	grōk•pupō	bōn gā pu	koklap	koklup
pit'	pī, py u pa	pī	$p\bar{\iota}$	gai	bīa	gai	gyai, bī
mēchichhā	mārchhāchhā	mīmchhāchhā	mimchhāchhā	māschwē-chwē	t ābe	melsimā-chyē	wēsbē-chyo
$uml\bar{e}nto(k)$	kholē	$ml\bar{e}pa$	$lar{e}par{a}$	nēmphū	duliso	นิทบูงไ	ūnyol, n ūlu
kūtimā	khlī	haga	khēbā	khlēbā	ehīli	k47£1,	khlēb
nāphak	nāpro	$nar{a}bar{a}$	n ōhwa, n ōho	nōk phla	- ปนิโก	nēcho	nēcho
ūm-ting	dai	dīi	ūm-dī, wā-dī	dīi	la ī- bā n y'-ya	phāttē	û t (î
mak	michak	mik'su	muk'si	mik'si	bisi	mash	mas, miksi
nyālung	u-ngālung	nābwa	ngōbwa, ngōbo	kal	kūli	kīphī	kāphū
mi	mi	mi	mi	mū	mi	mi	mi
ıgā 	ngāsā	ngā	ngā	ngōsā	$ng\bar{o}s\bar{o}$	ugo	 ' n go
āng	phīlū	₹ ōō	lōng	khel	lōsu	syāl	syāl, yū
hhāgar	chhōng-gara	chhānga r a	chhāngyara	chhwara	sāngaru	grodyū	grot
hāmā, chāmcha	chā	chāmma	c h āsūm	chā	$j\bar{a}ma$	jā, dyu	1418
$nar{u}a$	mus'ya, twōng	tāa-sām	mūī, tō-sūm	sēm, swēm	sōm	umarsam. dosamũ sam	- do-sūm, u-s on
hhūk	chhū	$h\bar{u}\bar{u}$	hũh'u	lwā	lā	khar	khar
ing	tāklo	tāklo	tõng	būi	; phūtiri	u dhon g	dhona
īk, pa	bō	Lōō	bōō	bwī, bo	pā	po -	Ino puro
hūkmū-tāng	rũng, tong	$t\bar{a}\bar{z}$	йт-pitta	um-rāng	rõso	ughrong	grang
im	khim	khim	Khim	nēm	kūḍū	k.īm	kām, kim
g ā	sākā	sakāā	sākā	krūim	krēmkhō	sõ?	sña
īrchha, pā	soröchhā	wachechhā	ācchhā	wāschwe	ōcho	las ha	lasthe
līma, ladipma	lādīpa	lānīma	lā	khlyē, khlē	twasyā!	Lyā.	lūmy īmtu, lu
	däda	dāḍa	tām'-him	bro	kwāma	udhām	-
,	d yō	ngōcho	ngo	si	$d ilde{u}li$	kwom	kwom, kom
ng	nang	na	ning	nang	di	nang	 nang

	Bālāli.	Sāngpāng.	Löhöröng.	Lāmbichhōng.	Wāling.	Chhingtāng.	Rüngchhönbüng.
Night	setta	um-sepā	sen	i-sembā	umkhakhū, akhakhwi	ukhakhūit	ukhākhwāi, ukhāko
Road	lām	lām	lām, lam'phū	lāmbo	lām	lāmbo	lām
Sky	nãm	ni-nāmbobi, nām'chho	nāmtrūngma	nāmchhiri	sag'ra	nāmchhur u	nāmchok
Snake	pū	pū	pū-se(-ma)	pū	puchhāp, puchham	pūchhā	pūchhām
Son	wāthapchhā	wāchchhachhā	wāthāppa-pasā	yemba chhā	dūwa-chhā chhā	chhãi	dūwachhā-chhā
Star	sūngemmā	sānggeū	sāngge(-mmā)	chokchong-gi	sanggenma	chok-chong-i, chok-choi.	sānggēn
Stone	lu'ko'wa	lūng	lūng-kong-wa	lūng (-ok'wa)	lūng-tāk	lūnggwak'-wa	lūng'tā
Sun	nā m	$l \bar{o} p \bar{a}$	nām	$nar{a}m$	nāmchhowa	$n\bar{a}m$	nām
Thirst	wāime	wām'mā	wait'mā	wait'mā	wāikmā	wāikmā	wāitmā, wāmitmā
Tiger	keuba	kīpa	$k\bar{\imath}ba$	kība	dhīnarā, dhīnrā	kībha	kīwa
Tooth	kēng	kā	kēng	kēng	kang	kēng	kang
Tree	sin'tenda	tup-sāng	sing-tāng-dāk	sing-i-tāng-li	sangu	sang'	sang't ā ng
Village	ten	tē	gāwā	ten	teng	tēn	tēng
Water	kūngwā	$(k\tilde{a}-)w\bar{a}$	yowā	chūwā, wēt	chāwā	chūwā	chāwā
Woman	memchhā	mīmachhā	menūmmā	māchhi	adūmā	māchē	mēchhāchhā
Far	tārho	chhūsi	wō, miyo	mānglok	māng'-kha-ya	māng-no	māng-sa, mangkhīya-da
Near	netā	neti, yū-bhi	nen, ning-tāng	tangnek-lok	mumikngā, neh'yang	tanghe, tangne	nek-ta, nekkhida, neēk
Good	nūne, nup	nī	nũye	nūy u kkha	nū, khupu-nū, amwa, i	nūno	nūwo
Bad	īsāne, isap', nū-nī-ne	īsi	īsa, phenna	nūyuk-nin-kha, ngasi-yukha	noūdhōi, aitpa	it'no	euwo, ā-nū-nin-ko
Raw	mā-tūpti	man'-dū-(wako)	mentumpa, mākam' pa	hinglī (-kha)	umpāwa, aa ma ng	umāng	womāng, umāng
Ripe	tūmap	setnāchi, dūwako	dumem'pa, tumem'pa	thūyū (-ye-kha)	sūm'sa, tup'sa, bhang'sa	uthūbāi	tūmawo
Tall	$kar{\imath}boldsymbol{y}ar{e}p$	otto-rīpiko	keye	kếyuk' (-kha)	kīyāng	kēno	kiyang, kong-yang kwangta
Short	täksip'	uttuche-rīpiko	taksye, mim'mu	พนีyuk'(-kha)	dūiyāng	unno	simta, simyang
Eat	chō	chō	choye	choh'	cho	chōha, chō-a	chō
Drink	dūngo	dungu	dūngē	thūnga	dūngō	thūva, thū-a	dūngō

Dūngmāli.	Rodong.	Nāchhērēng.	Külung.	Thulung.	Chouras'ya.	Khāling.	D ū mi.
ūm khākh ū	khōsai	umsyāpa	sēpa	dum'ma, dungma	domsā, dwāng- prīmo, dompaime	ũ-senām	ū-sen-yām
lām	lām	lām	lām	lām	lām	lāmdō	lāmdaū
nām	nām	nāmchho	chhūburi, netwa	dw āmu	dwām	dhām	nāmtū
pū chhāp	pūchho	puū .	pu	phūchyū	bīsa	bhei	bhēi
mirchhā-chhā	sorochha-chhā	wach'chhā-chhā	wāchha-chhā	waschwe-chwe	tāwa	tārāpā-chye	lasbē-chyo
sānggenma	pitipya, pitappa	sangger'wa	sūng-ger	swar	soru	songgar	songger
lüngtā	lūng'to	โนินิ	lūng	lūng	lūng	1ūng	lūng
nām-chhong-wa	nān, nām-liya	nām	nām	nepsūng, nem	dwām	nām	nām
chāōmit'-mā	wāimā	wāmimā	wā mmā	k ō d $ar{a}$	dakkhō	kunun', kunur'	kumāna
khīb hā	$char{a}bhar{a}$	dhing'trā	nāri	$gar{u}psyar{u}$	$g \bar{u} p s o$	nyor	nyor
kang	king	kaa	kāng	lyū	gūm'so	ngālu	ngīlo, ang'lo
sang-pu	song-pūwa	sāā	thonām	dhak'sa	sing	dhyāksā	topshū.
tën	tūngmā	tyāl	tēl	dēl	dēl	$d\bar{e}l$	dēl
chāh'wa	wā	kaawā	$k \bar{a} \bar{u}$	$kar{u}$	$k\bar{a}k\bar{u}$	$kar{u}$	$k\bar{u}$
umma	mīrchha	min'chhā	mim'-chhā	wochyū	bichomūyo	mespā	mesbē
mīng (-khūyā)	mokhā, mose, mise	ch h īb uru	chhūgri	chhyu-bat	bhāna	chhyūpā	chhyū
nek (-tīng)	ngan'-ge, nen-ge	·	nē n'- kha	ng ^z pa	āmna	nēphā m	mehingā
n นั	nyo, krē-nge	nada, nat natkhi	nō, nōi nōyu	n yūpa	dūcho	пуйра	กมูฑิpa
į	īse	is'da	man'-nōi	mī-nyū-pa	ādūchō		m บี- กเีpa
ummāng	mo, ummo	māpe	māmtum-khāpa, mamdū-pa, mōpē	uchākh-li	$kr\bar{a}bo$	ūsūta	ขีรนีta
tũm'sā	tupsāko, mattāko	dũwã k	tum-khāpa, dūpa	thik'ta, thōkta	thichō	dham'pa	mis'te
badhemego	kile, run'de	bhāipa, rēpa	wadrē-ppa	yēpa	rōbō, rōchŏ	song'-pa	song'-pa
tungo	inang-kile, pakile	yētē-rēpa, yētē- bhāi-pa	chirēppa	dōkhōn-yēpa	ä-rōchō, ā-rōbō	dokhāi-song'-pa	tibi-chyom
chōye	chō	chū-u	cho	$par{e}$	jākātā	jyūye, kūye	jy u
tünge	d ü ngö	dūngō	dūng'-ngu	d ûngā	tūkātā	tyung-ye	tingne

	Bālāli.	Sāngpāng.	Löhöröng.	Lāmbichhōng.	Waling.	Chhingtang.	Rüngchhenbüng.
Sleep	ipcha	ipsa	īme	im'sa	im'sa	ip'sa	im'sa
Come	$dar{a}ba$	$bar{a}nar{a}$	dābe	thāba	bāna	thāba	bāna
Go	kheda	khātā	khāde	khāḍa	khāra	khāda	khāra
Run	phīna	$bh\bar{u}sa$	pīne	pin'da	lõra	ping'da	lwāya
Give to me	pi-ngā	$par{\imath}ar{a}n$	pĩ-nge	pīrāng	pū-ang	pū-ang	$par{u}$ - $ar{a}$ ng
Give	pittu	$par{\imath}yar{u}$	pitte	pira	$p\bar{u}$	$p\bar{u}$	$p ilde{u}$
Strike	lomu	kīru, yosu, yop' su	lōme	tēna	mō-u	tēna	mou
Kill	$sar{e}du$	sītu	sēde	sēra	sēru	sēra	sēru

Düngmāli.	Rödöng.	Nāchhērēng.	Kūlung.	Thūlung.	Chouras'ya.	Khāling.	D ūmi.
im'se	im'sa	im'sa	im'sa	am'sa	glomtã	am'si	am'si
tābe	bāna	tāwa	b ān a	$b\bar{\imath}ka$	pikātā	райуе	рū
khāde	āta, pung'sa	khāta	khāta	dak'sa	levāstā.	khoche	khockhe
rōde	wõna	bal'sa	būlsa	wānda	prōkātā	ghūre	ghūre
pīyāng-ye	ĩdông	pī-a-wa	piyā	gwā-āng	gakā	bingāye	bingā
pi-ye	īdu	pī-yo	piyū	$gwar{a}kar{a}$	$gar{o}ktar{a}$		Ŋī.
n ōre	chaī-zyū, chaī-dyū	yop'sū	kēru	yalsa	t ūptā	yālye	klen'de
s ēde	sētyū	sītū	sēt u	sēda	syātt ā	sēde	sēde

BALALI.

The Bālāli Khambus live in the so-called Mājh, or Middle Kirānt, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun Rivers.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

Bālāli is most closely related to Löhöröng and the Bontāwa dialects.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{o} , om in forms such as \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$, father; om'- $m\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is identical with the pronoun \bar{o} , his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms or by adding suffixes or words denoting the sex. Thus, \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$, father; om- $m\bar{a}$, mother: $w\bar{a}th\bar{a}kpa$ and $w\bar{a}th\bar{a}ppa$, man; mem- $chh\bar{a}$, woman: $w\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, cock; $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ and $w\bar{a}$ -o- $m\bar{a}$, hen: om-dap'-mi, husband; $n\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}$, wife: weh'- $chh\bar{a}$, young man: $l\bar{a}ngna$ - $m\bar{e}$, young woman: $pichchh\bar{a}$, boy; pich- $chh\bar{a}$ $m\bar{i}m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, girl: $w\bar{a}thap$ - $chh\bar{a}$ and $w\bar{a}thak$ -pachha, son; $m\bar{i}m\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, daughter: \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, dog; om'- $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, bitch.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The suffix of the dual is chi, and that of the plural mi; thus, $m\bar{i}na-chi$, two men; $m\bar{i}na-mi$, men.

The genitive can be expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing word without any suffix; thus, pih' $pachh\bar{a}$, cow's young, calf; $w\bar{a}$ $d\bar{\imath}n$, fowl's egg. A genitive suffix mi, m, is also used, and the governed word can be repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing one; thus, mithiba-mi $pachh\bar{a}$, goat-of young, and mithiba-mi u-p- $chh\bar{a}$, goat-of its-young, kid.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $p\bar{i}$, $b\bar{i}$, in; $p\bar{a}ng$, from; $ng\bar{a}$, by; $l\bar{u}ng$, with; medding, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first ten numerals are found in the table on p. 342. The forms hich'che, two, etc., cannot be used when human beings are counted, the final che, ji, being, in that case replaced by $p\bar{a}ng$, or $b\bar{a}ng$; thus, $hipp\bar{a}ng$, two.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Z I OHOGEN	are the personal prone	
$kar{a}ngar{a},kar{a},\mathbf{I}.$	$\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou.	mo, kho, he, she, it.
$\bar{u}ng$, um , my .	\bar{a} , $\bar{a}m$, $\bar{a}p$, thy.	\bar{u} , \bar{o} , up , mo - m , kho - m , his, her,
kāng-mi, mine.	$\bar{a}m$ - mi , thine.	its. mo-mi, kho-mi, his, hers, its. kho-chi
$k\bar{a}$ -chi, I and thou.	ānā-chi, you two.	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} kho\text{-}chi \ mo\text{-}chi \end{array} ight\} hippar{a}ng$, they two.
$k\bar{a}$ -chi-m, my and thy.	ānā-chi-m, your two.	kho-chi-m, mi-chi-m, mo-chi,
kā-chi-m-mi, mine and thine.	ānā-chi-m-mi, yours two.	hippāng-chi-m, their two. mi-chi-m-mi, kho-chi-m-mi, etc., theirs two.
$k\bar{a}$ -chi- $k\bar{a}$, $k\dot{a}$ -chi- $g\check{a}$, I and		
he. kā-chi-gā-m, my and his.		

kā-chi-gā-m-mi, mine and his.
īkin, I and you.
īking, my and your.
īkim-mi, mine and yours.
īk-kā, I and they.

ānin, you. ānim, āninim, your. anim-mi, yours. kho-chi, mo-chi, they.
kho-chi-m, mo-chi-m, their.
kho-chi-m-mi, mo-chi-m-mi,
theirs.

īkkā-m, my and their.
īkkām-mi, mine and theirs.

It will be seen that the plural forms of the third person are dual by origin.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstratives; thus, $k\bar{o}\bar{o}$, this; $m\bar{o}\bar{o}$, that, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ -lo, who ? $\bar{u}kha$, what? The same bases occur in the indefinite pronouns $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ -ne, anybody; $\bar{u}kh\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes in order to denote the person and number of the subject and object and about the formation of tenses.

A dual and a plural subject of the second person with an imperative are indicated by adding chi, nin, respectively; thus, cho, eat; cha-chi, eat ye two; cha-nin, eat ye.

An object of the first person singular is indicated by adding the suffix $ng\bar{a}$ in pi- $ng\bar{a}$, give me. The t in pi-t-tu, give him, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person.

The form henge, it is, yes, seems to show that a suffix e is used to form a present.

The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, $n\bar{a}$, take; $y\bar{e}pok$, stand up. Other imperatives end in o and u or a; thus, $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; lomu, strike; $d\bar{a}ba$, come. The suffix o or u is changed to a before the suffixes chi and nin of the dual and plural; thus, $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; $d\bar{u}nga-nin$, drink ye.

There is apparently a negative suffix ne; thus, $h\bar{e}$ -nga-ne, it is not, no. An infix ni occurs in words such as $n\bar{u}$ -ni-ne, good not, bad. In $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}pti$, not ripe, raw, we apparently have a prefix $m\bar{a}$. The negative with imperatives is a prefixed na.

SĀNGPĀNG,

The Sangpangs are one of the Khambu septs of $M\tilde{a}jh$, or Middle, Kirant, *i.e.* the country between the Likha and Arun rivers.

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Sāngpāng is closely connected with Dūngmāli, Bālāli, the Bontāwa dialects, etc.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}m$ - $dh\bar{a}bmi$, husband; $\bar{u}m$ - $l\bar{e}pa$, day, and so on, is by origin a demonstrative pronoun; compare $\bar{u}m$, his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words indicating the sex. Thus, $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}m$ - $m\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{a}$, mother: $w\bar{a}chchh\bar{a}$, man;

individuals, those ending in *chi* are neuter. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in tens.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

$m{k}ar{a}ngar{a},m{k}ar{a},f I.$	hānā, ānā, thou.	$mo-nu$, mi , $m\bar{o}$, he, she, it.
$\bar{u}ng$, my.	$\bar{a}m$, thy.	um, his, her, its.
$k \bar{a} n g \bar{a}$ - $m i$, mine.	hānā-mi, thine.	mo-mi, meyem-mi, his.
kā-chi, I and thou.	hānā-chi, ānā-chi, hān- chi-na, you two.	mo-chi, māhā-chi, they two.
kā-chi-m, en'-chi, my and		
hy.		
kā-chī-mi, en'chi-mi, mine and thine.	am-chi, ānā-chi-m, ān-chi- na-m, your.	um-chi, māhā-chi-m, their.
$k\bar{a}$ -chi-ka, I and he.		
$k\bar{a}$ -chi- $k\bar{a}m$, ung-chi, my and his.	am-chi-mi, ān-chi-nā-mi, yours.	um-chi-mi, mā-hā-chi-mi, theirs.
kā-chi-kāmi, ung-chi-mi, mine and his.		
kā-ni, I and you.	hā-ni-nā, ā-ni-nā, kang- nā, you.	$m\bar{\imath}h\bar{a}$ - na , $m\bar{\imath}h\bar{a}$ - chi , they.
$k\bar{a}$ - ni - m , en - ni , my and your.	am-ni. hān-nā-m, hā-ni- nā-m, your.	um - chi , $m\bar{\imath}h\bar{a}$ - chi - m , their.
kā-ni-mi, mine and yours.		
$k\bar{a}$ -ning- $k\bar{a}$, I and they.	hān-nam-mi, hā-ni-nā-mi, yours.	um - chi - mi , $m\bar{\imath}$ - $h\bar{\alpha}$ - $chim$ - mi , theirs.
kā-ning-kām, en-ni, my and their.		
kā-ning-kam-mi, mine and		
theirs.		

It will be seen that the dual and the plural are confounded in the third person, as in the case of nouns. It looks as if the dual were gradually giving way to the plural. Our materials are, however, insufficient for arriving at a definite result.

 $M\bar{o}$, he, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun meaning 'that.' The corresponding nearer demonstrative is $\bar{\imath}go$, this. The real base is $\bar{\imath}$, and the suffix go can also be added to $m\bar{o}$; thus, $m\bar{o}go\text{-}chi$, they. The dual of $\bar{\imath}go$ is given as iga-chi, these two.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{a}$, who? $im\bar{a}ng$, what? They can be changed to indefinite pronouns by adding $s\bar{a}ng$; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng$, anyone; $im\bar{a}ng-s\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—The subject of the verb is probably indicated by adding pronominal suffixes; thus, limuk-nga, I am sweet; khik-nga and khik-ti-nga, I am bitter; dūng-ē, drink thou; dūnga-che, drink ye two; dūnga-ne, drink ye. Our information about the matter is not sufficient. There seems to be a suffix nga denoting a subject of the first person singular. In the imperative, a dual or plural subject is indicated by adding che, ne, respectively. Those forms are identical with the dual and plural suffix of personal pronouns. An m is sometimes inserted before the n of the plural; thus, sede, kill; seda-che, kill ye two; sedam-ne, kill ye.

A suffix ng is also used to denote an object of the first person; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-ng-\bar{e}$, give me. The t in $pit-t-\bar{e}$, give him, is perhaps a corresponding suffix of the third person.

Forms such as $m\bar{o} n\bar{u}$, that is good; $\bar{i}go n\bar{u}$, this is good; medding, it is not, show that the base alone can be used as a present. We have no other information about the formation of the various tenses.

The suffix of the imperative is e, dual a-che, plural a-ne or am-ne; thus, $d\bar{a}be$, come; $d\bar{a}ba$ -che, come ye two; $d\bar{a}b\bar{a}$ -ne, come ye; lome, strike; loma-che, strike ye two; lomam-ne, strike ye.

Causals are formed by suffixing mette; thus, dung-mette, cause him to drink; immette, cause him to sleep.

The negative particle is apparently a prefixed me; thus, medding, not-is, without. A suffixed ni is used in words such as $n\bar{a}$ -ni, good-not, bad. A negative imperative is formed by prefixing e; thus, e'- $d\bar{u}be$ and e'- $t\bar{o}nge$, do not make.

LAMBICHHONG.

The Lāmbichhōng Khambus are a sept of the Wāling Bontāwas. They are found in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, *i.e.* the hills between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

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Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}m$ in words such as $\bar{\imath}$ -chhā and chhā, child; $\bar{\imath}$ -thin and thin, egg; $\bar{\imath}$ -lēmba, day; $\bar{\imath}m$ -pā, father; $\bar{\imath}m$ -mā, mother, etc., is by origin a pronoun; compare $\bar{\imath}m$, his, her, its. The same is the case with \bar{o} in words such as $\bar{\imath}mp\bar{a}$ \bar{o} -phak and $\bar{\imath}mp\bar{a}$ phak, a boar; compare $\bar{a}o$ -khā, yo-khā, etc., they.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words indicating the sex. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}chhi$, man; $m\bar{a}chhi$, woman: $y\bar{e}m'b\bar{a}$, husband; $m\bar{e}ch-chh\bar{a}$, wife: $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{a}-h\bar{u}-ba$, an old man; $m\bar{a}-hu-ma$, an old woman: $w\bar{a}ngchab\bar{a}ng$, a young man; $k\bar{a}m-rum-m\bar{e}$, a young woman: $y\bar{e}m'ba-chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{e}chh\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ and $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a male bird; $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ and $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a female bird: $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ $\bar{o}-pit'$ and $\bar{i}mp\bar{a}$ pit', bull; $\bar{i}mm\bar{a}$ $\bar{o}-pih'$, cow.

We have no information about the suffixes added in the dual and the plural. The suffix chhi in $chh\bar{a}$ -chhi, child; $p\bar{a}$ -chhi, man; $m\bar{a}$ -chhi, woman, is perhaps a dual suffix.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word and inserting the possessive pronoun corresponding to the former before the latter; thus, $pit'\bar{\imath}-chh\bar{a}$, cow its-young, calf; $sing-\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}ngli$, wood-its-plant, tree. The possessive pronoun can be dropped; thus, $tang\ ph\bar{u}kwa$, head hair, the hair of the head; $w\bar{a}-thin$, bird's egg. The suffix $kh\bar{a}$, of, is probably identical with the final kha in numerous adjectives, such as $n\bar{u}yukkha$, good; $k\bar{u}y\bar{u}-kha$, hot, etc. It seems to be used when the governing word is understood; thus, $k\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}$, mine. $Ng\bar{a}ka$, of, is perhaps miswritten for $ng\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, and contains the suffix $ng\bar{a}$, by. Compare $\bar{a}ko-ng\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}$, his, hers, its.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as $ng\bar{a}$, by; $b\bar{e}$, in; behong, from; lok, with; $m\bar{a}ngchhi$, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first three numerals are found in the table on p. 342. The forms ending in bang and pang are only used when rational beings are counted. The suffixes li and chi are used with reference to other nouns. 'Ten' is ippong as in Löhöröng and Bālāli.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kāngā, kā, I.	khānā, thou.	āko, yonā, monā, tonā, he, she,
ang , $\bar{u}ng$, um , my . $k\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}$, $mine$.	$ar{a}$, am , an , thy. $khar{a}nar{a}$ - $khar{a}$, thine.	it. $i, \bar{\imath}m, \text{ his, hers, its.}$ $yon\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}, \text{ etc., his, hers,}$ its.
 kān-chhī, I and thou, my and thy. kān-chhī-ngā, I and he, my and his. 	khānā-chhī, you two, your two.	yonā-chhī, etc., they two, their two.
kā-ni, I and you, my and your.	khānā-nī, you, your.	yo- $kh\bar{a}$, etc., they, their.
$k\bar{a}$ -ni-ng \bar{a} , I and they, my and their.		

The pronouns of the third person are originally demonstrative pronouns. Such are also $n\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}rok$, this; $y\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ and $y\bar{o}n\bar{a}-rok$, that; $oukh\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}ukha$, that, etc.

The use of the possessive pronouns with nouns has already been mentioned. Compare also $\bar{a}ko$ im-sing-i-tangli nuyuk-nin-kha, $k\bar{a}\text{-}kh\bar{a}\text{-}ng\text{-}sing\text{-}i\text{-}tangli$ nuyuk-kha, he his-tree good-not, mine-my-tree good, his tree is not good, my tree is good. Possessive pronouns are also $y\bar{o}n\bar{a}\text{-}ng\bar{a}\text{-}kh\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}ko\text{-}ng\bar{a}\text{-}k\bar{a}$, his, hers, its; $\bar{a}u\text{-}kha\text{-}chhi\text{-}ng\bar{a}\text{-}kh\bar{a}$, of them two, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{e}$ -ong, who? $th\bar{i}$ -ya, what? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $chh\bar{a}$ to the interrogative bases. Thus, $s\bar{i}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, anyone; $th\bar{i}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, anything.

Verbs.—We do not know how the various tenses are formed. Forms such as nuyuk-nin-kha, not-good, it is not good, show that the base alone can be used as a present.

We have not sufficient information about the use of pronominal suffixes to indicate the person and number of the subject and the object. A dual and a plural subject with imperatives is indicated by adding chu or chi, nu (num) or ni, respectively; thus, thunga-chu, drink ye two; thunga-num, drink ye: pira-chu, give ye two; pira-nu, give ye: thāba-chi, come ye two; thāba-ni, come ye. We do not know how the forms containing an i are distinguished from those containing a u. The latter are perhaps the transitive forms.

A suffix ig is used to denote an object of the first person singular in pi- $r\bar{a}$ -ng, give me; pi-ra-chi-ng, give me ye two; pi-ra-ni-ng, give me ye.

The suffix of the imperative is apparently a; thus, $th\bar{u}nga$, drink; pira, give; thapta, bring. The suffixes of the dual and plural have already been mentioned. Note choh, eat; dual chasa-chu, plural chasa-num.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}-le$, not-is, no. A negative suffix nin is used in adjectives such as nuyuk-nin-kha, good-not, bad. The negative imperative is formed by prefixing ang and suffixing -n.

WĀLING.

The Wāling sept of the Bontāwa Khambus live in what Hodgson calls Mājh Kirānt or Middle Kirānt, *i.e.* the hills between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Nêpâl, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,-A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} in words such as \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{a} - $d\bar{u}wa$, man, and so on, is probably a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of additions meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: \bar{a} - $d\bar{u}wa$ and $d\bar{u}wa$, man; \bar{a} - $d\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{a}$ -sang, old man; $m\bar{a}$ -sang, old woman: \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ -sang, husband; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -sang, wife: $d\bar{u}wa$ - $chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, daughter: phang'ta, young man; $k\bar{a}$ me $chh\bar{a}$, young woman: $w\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, cock; $w\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, hen: \bar{a} -pa kochuw \bar{a} , dog; \bar{a} -ma kochum \bar{a} , bitch: \bar{a} -po chhongw \bar{a} , a male bird; \bar{a} -ma chhongw \bar{a} , a female bird.

We have no information about the use of suffixes for marking the dual and the plural.

The genitive is apparently formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, $t\bar{a}ng\ m\bar{u}wa$, head hair, the hair of the head; $b\bar{a}kara\ chh\bar{a}chi$, goat's young, kid. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} , by; pi, $ed\bar{a}$, and inan, with; $d\bar{a}$, $id\bar{a}$, inan, and pe, in; pangkwa, from; $d\bar{a}ngk\bar{a}$, towards; mochhi, without, and so on.

The first six numerals are found in the table on p. 342. They are apparently most closely connected with the forms in use in Rūngchhēnbūng.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

hānā, khānā, thou. aya, haya-ko, mo-ko, he, she, ang-ka, ing-ka, I. am, thy. \bar{a} , my. am-pik, thine. hayek-pik, his, hers, its. āng-pik, mine. haya-ni, moko-ni, hāyāk, they. hānā-ni, you. i-kā, ū-kā, ing-kai, ingka-ni, I and you. kong-kai-ka, I and they. hāyanka-pik, their. ang-ka-pik, our. hayekka-pik, your.

Some of these forms are rather suspicious. None of them appear to be dual forms, though there cannot be any doubt that such forms exist.

Angka, ingka, I, correspond to the forms in use in Rüngchhenbung and Düngmäli. The final pik in āng-pik, mine, etc., corresponds to bi in the latter dialect. The plural

suffix is ni, corresponding to nin in Rüngchhenbüng and Düngmali, ni in Lambichhong, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are δ - $\ddot{n}g\bar{a}$, \ddot{o} -ko, and i-pi- $ng\bar{a}$, this; $kh\bar{o}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{o}$ -ko, and hayaya, that.

Interrogative pronouns are dei, who? tikwa, what? $kh\bar{a}\bar{u}$, which? tem and dem, how much? $d\bar{e}h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, why? The indefinite particle $kchh\bar{u}$ makes interrogative pronouns indefinite. It occurs in forms such as ti- $ikchh\bar{u}$, anything; asa- $kchh\bar{u}$, anybody.

Verbs.—We have no materials for judging about the formation of tenses or the marking of the person and number of the subject by means of pronominal suffixes. Forms such as \bar{o} and \bar{a} , yes, literally 'it-is,' show that the base alone is used as a present. The bases \bar{a} and \bar{o} , to be, are probably identical with the bases of the demonstrative pronouns \bar{o} -ko, this; a-ya, it. Other bases of the copula are in and ang' in $m\bar{a}$ -in and $m\bar{a}$ -ang', it is not, no.

The form $p\bar{u}$ -ang, give me, shows that the suffix ang can be used to indicate an object of the first person singular.

Imperatives end in u or o, and a; thus, $b\bar{a}ttu$, take; $s\bar{e}ru$, kill; $y\bar{u}ng'su$, put down; $y\bar{e}nu$, hear; $d\bar{u}ngo$, drink; cho, eat; im'sa, sleep; $kh\bar{a}ra$, go; $y\bar{u}nga$, sit; thing'ta, wake; $ch\bar{e}wa$, speak; $b\bar{a}na$, come, and so on. The base alone is also used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{u}$, give; $n\bar{e}$, take.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -in and $m\bar{a}$ -ang', it is not, no. $M\bar{a}y\bar{e}$ or $m\bar{a}i$ is used instead with an imperative. Hodgson also mentions a negative suffix $\bar{\imath}$, but he does not give any instance of its use.

CHHINGTĀNG.

The Chhingtang sept of the Bontawa Khambus are found in the tract called Wallo Kirant, between the Sunkhosi and the Likhu river.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them. Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Our information about Chhingtang grammar is very unsatisfactory, and it is only possible to judge about some few points.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way, by means of separate words or of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{a}ch\bar{e}$, woman: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $chh\bar{a}i$, son; $m\bar{e}ch$ $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$ daughter: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$ ko- $ch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, dog; \bar{u} -ma $koch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, bitch: $b\bar{u}dha$ - $p\bar{a}$, old man; $b\bar{u}dhi$ - $m\bar{a}$, old woman: $w\bar{a}nch\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}ng$, young man; $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{e}ch$ $chh\bar{a}$, young woman.

The prefix \bar{u} in words such as \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

We have no information about the formation of the higher numbers.

Cases are formed by adding suffixes such as $ng\bar{a}$ for the instrumental and ablative, be and pe for the locative. Instances of the locative are $\bar{u}t\bar{e}n$ -be, above; $\bar{u}rh\bar{a}$ -be, between; \bar{u} - $k\bar{u}m$ -be, in the interior, within.

The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, and sometimes repeating the former by means of a pronominal prefix before the latter; thus, $m\bar{e}ndi\ bachh\bar{a}$, goat's young, kid; $tang'ph\bar{u}kwa$, hair of the head; $bh\bar{e}di\ \bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, sheep its-male-young, a male lamb.

The first three numerals will be found in the comparative vocabulary on p. 342. It will be seen that they closely agree with the forms occurring in Lāmbichhōng.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

$\bar{a}k\bar{a}$, I.	hānā, thou.	mogica, yoko, he, she, it.
\bar{a} , my.	hānā, hānā-yakkwā, thy,	
	thine.	, , ,
akoo, akwa, mine.		mogwasēkkwā, his, hers, its.
kānanā, kāngāna, we.	hānā-nina, you.	mogo-na, they.
$kar{a}nar{u}ngar{a} ext{-}ikkwar{a}$, our.	hāni-yakkwā, your.	hūngcheikkwā, their.

It will be seen that the suffix of the plural is na. The form $h\bar{u}ngcheikkw\bar{a}$, their, is perhaps a dual; compare the dual suffix chi in Lāmbichhōng and connected dialects.

The forms $k\bar{a}$ -na- $n\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ -na, we, are apparently formed from singulars corresponding to Lämbichhöng $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}$, I. The plural suffix is na, and the final $n\bar{a}$ in $k\bar{a}$ -na- $n\bar{a}$, we, perhaps corresponds to Lämbichhöng $ng\bar{a}$ which is added to the dual and plural of the first person if the person addressed is excluded; thus, $k\bar{a}$ -ni, I and you; $k\bar{a}$ -ni- $ng\bar{a}$, I and they.

The form $h\bar{a}ni$ -y- $akkw\bar{a}$, your, shows that the plural suffix also has the form ni. $H\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -nina, you, is perhaps a misprint for $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ni, -na, i.e. $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -ni, $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -na. Compare the forms khana-nin and khana-na, you, in Rüngchhenbüng.

Demonstrative pronouns are $\delta k \delta$, bago, and nago, this; $k h \delta k h \delta$ and mogo, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{a}l\bar{o}$, who? $hokkog\bar{o}$, which? $th\bar{e}m$, what? They can be changed to indefinites by adding $y\bar{a}ng$, also; thus, $s\bar{a}l\bar{o}-y\bar{a}ng$, anybody; $th\bar{e}m-y\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—We do not know if the person and number of the subject is indicated by adding pronominal suffixes to the verb. The object is sometimes marked in this way, for we find the suffix ang, me, added in $p\bar{u}$ -ang, give me.

The base alone is apparently used as a present; thus, $y\bar{e}$, or $y\bar{\epsilon}t$, it is, yes. We have not, however, any information about the formation of the various tenses.

The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{u}$, give. Usually, however, the imperative ends in a, commonly preceded by some consonant; thus, $ch\bar{o}ha$, $ch\bar{o}a$, eat; $th\bar{u}ua$, $th\bar{u}a$, drink; ip'sa, sleep; $r\bar{e}ta$, laugh; $th\bar{e}na$, strike; $th\bar{a}ba$, come; $kh\bar{a}da$, go; ping'da, run; $kh\bar{a}tta$, take. The first of two connected imperatives is changed to a conjunctive participle, which is formed by substituting a u for the final a; thus, $kh\bar{a}ttu$, $kh\bar{a}ra$, taking go, take away.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, not-is, no. Before imperatives $m\bar{a}$ is interchangeable with $th\bar{a}$. Another negative is said to be formed by means of an infix i.

RÜNGCHHENBÜNG.

The Rüngchhenbung sub-tribe of the Bontawa Khambus is stated to dwell in Middle Kîrant, i.e. in the Himalaya between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W., -A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—Many nouns contain a prefix which occurs in the forms \bar{u} , \bar{o} and eu. Eu is said to be pronounced as the eu in French 'jeu.' It seems, however, probable that it should rather be written \bar{u} and pronounced as u in French 'lune.' Instances of the use of this prefix are \bar{u} -chho, arm; eu-tāng, head; \bar{u} -pā, \bar{o} -pā, and eu-pā, father; \bar{u} -dīng, egg; \bar{u} -bhē, arrow. This prefix is originally a demonstrative pronoun.

Another common prefix is $s\bar{a}$, which originally means 'flesh'; thus, $s\bar{a}$ -hokwa, skin; $s\bar{a}$ -yūba, bone.

There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different terms or else by adding words meaning 'male' and 'female,' respectively; thus, $d\bar{u}wachh\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{e}chchhachh\bar{a}$, woman: \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: \bar{o} - $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, dog; \bar{o} - $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}ch\bar{u}w\bar{a}$, bitch: $d\bar{u}wachh\bar{a}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{e}chchhachh\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $b\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$, old man; $b\bar{u}dh\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{o}k$ - $m\bar{a}$, old woman.

There are no instances available of the marking of number in the case of nouns. Adjectives have three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is formed by suffixing chi and the plural by prefixing ma; thus, $n\bar{u}wo$, good, dual $n\bar{u}wo$ -chi, plural ma- $n\bar{u}wo$. Such forms probably only occur if the adjective is used as a noun, and we can therefore describe the suffix chi as that of the dual, and the prefix ma as forming a plural of nouns.

The case of the agent and the instrumental is formed by adding \bar{a} and ya; the suffix of the locative is $d\bar{a}$, and that of the ablative $d\bar{a}ngk\bar{a}$. The genitive is formed by simply prefixing the governed to governing noun; thus, $p\bar{i}$ $y\bar{u}wa$, cow's bone; $w\bar{a}$ $d\bar{i}n$, fowl's egg. The governed noun can be repeated by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, $bh\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ $um-chh\bar{a}$, sheep its-young, lamb.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $chak-d\bar{a}$, side-in, near; $chok-d\bar{a}$, $dung-d\bar{a}$, on, upon; it'nan, with; $m\bar{a}dang$, mandang, without, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the word they qualify; thus, euk-chhā nūwo mana, a good man; euk-pop nūwo chupi, a good knife. Some adjectives are, however, stated to be sometimes also put after the qualified noun.

Numerals.—The first numerals will be found in the table on p. 342. They precede the noun they qualify; thus, euk-chhā nūwo mana, one good man. It will be seen from the table that the numerals have more than one form, different suffixes being added. These suffixes are probably all generic particles. Thus, chhā, and probably also wang, denote human beings, and pop denotes things. Forms such as eukta, one; heu-sa, two; sūm-ya, three, are unchangeable.

Pronouns.—The	following a	are the p	personal	pronouns:
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ung-ka, ang-ka, ang, I.	khāna, thou.	oko, moko, euhyako, euyauko,
		he, she, it.
ang, my.	am, thy.	o, u, eu, his, her, its.
ang- ko , mine.	am-ko, thine.	mo-so, yau-so, his, hers, its.
ung-ka-cheu-a, I and he.		oko-chi, moko-chi, euyako-chi,
		they two.
ung-ka-chi, I and thou.	khana-chi, you two.	
ung-kan-ka, I and they.		
ung-kan, I and you.	khana-nin, khana-na, you.	moko, they.
āinkwa, our.	āmno, your.	myāūcho, their.

Oko, this; moko, that, are also demonstrative pronouns. When used as adjectives, they have the form \bar{o} , $m\bar{o}$, respectively. Another demonstrative is khokho, that person, non-present.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{a}ng$, who ? $s\bar{a}ng$ - $y\bar{e}$, which ? $kh\bar{a}wa$, which ? $diy\bar{e}$, what ? $d\bar{e}na$, why ? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $chh\bar{a}ng$ to interrogatives; thus, $s\bar{a}ng$ - $chh\bar{a}ng$, anybody; di- $chh\bar{a}ng$, anything.

Verbs.—The number of the subject is said to be indicated in the verb, but we are not told how. Nor have we any information as to whether the person of the subject is marked by means of suffixes added to the verb.

The object is apparently sometimes indicated by means of a suffix. The only instance in the materials available is $p\bar{u}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, give me; $p\bar{u}$ -ch-ang, give me you two; $p\bar{u}$ -n-ang, give me ye, which contains a suffix ang, me.

The final nga in ang-nga, yes, is probably a copula, and the literal meaning of ang-nga is perhaps 'being-is,' 'it is so.' The copula nga is only used in such sentences as state that some action really takes place. It is therefore dropped in negative clauses; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, not-is, no.

We are not informed about the suffixes of the different tenses.

The suffix of the imperative is \bar{o} or u, or a in the singular; thus, $ch\bar{o}$, eat; $s\bar{e}ru$, kill; im'sa, sleep; $b\bar{a}na$, come. The suffixes chi and nin are added if the subject is of the dual and plural, respectively. Thus, $p\bar{u}$ -chi, give ye two; $p\bar{u}$ -nin, give ye. If the suffix u, \bar{o} , is added in the singular, the corresponding dual and plural are formed by changing \bar{o} , u to a and adding chn (i.e. perhaps $ch\bar{u}$) and num respectively; thus, $d\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{o} , drink, dual dunga-chu, plural dunga-num.

Forms such as $p\bar{u}$, give; $n\bar{e}$, take, do not contain any suffix in the singular, and consequently add chi, nin, respectively.

Forms such as $b\bar{a}ttu$ -ki $b\bar{a}na$, take and come, bring; $kh\bar{a}ttu$ -ki $kh\bar{a}ra$, take and go, take off, show that the first of two connected imperatives is changed to a kind of conjunctive participle by adding ki.

Causals are formed by adding mettu; thus, khang-mettu, cause to see, show.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, not-is, no. The negative imperative is formed by adding man. Another negative is formed by prefixing eu and suffixing nin; thus, om-ko, white; eu-om-nin-ko, not white.

DŪNGMĀLI.

The Düngmāli Khambus live in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. in the hills between the Likha and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

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Hunter, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Dungmāli is most closely connected with Wāling, Löhöröng, and the Bontāwa dialects.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in $\bar{u}m$ -ma, mother, $(\bar{u}m$ -)lentok, day; $\bar{u}m$ -tang, head, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is indicated by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes or words denoting the sex. Thus, $\bar{u}m-p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}-m\bar{a}$ and $\bar{u}m-m\bar{a}$, mother: $m\bar{v}rchh\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$, man; $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$ and probably also $mechh\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{a}-d\bar{u}m$, husband; $m\bar{a}-d\bar{u}m$, wife: $w\bar{a}ngchh\bar{a}$, young man; $mechh\bar{a}bang$, young woman: $t\bar{a}p-p\bar{a}$, old man; $t\bar{a}p-m\bar{a}$, old woman: $\bar{u}mbh\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}tim\bar{a}$, dog; $\bar{u}m-m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}tim\bar{a}$, bitch.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is formed by suffixing $ch\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}e$ and the plural by prefixing ma; thus, $\bar{\imath}$, bad, dual $\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ -e, plural ma-y- $\bar{\imath}$. Compare Rüngchhenbüng. The plural can also be formed by suffixing ne; thus, ne,
The genitive is apparently expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, and inserting a pronominal prefix referring to the former before the latter; thus, $pit'\bar{u}m'-chh\bar{a}$, cow its-young, calf. The suffix bi is added if the governed word is understood; thus, ang-bi, mine.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $p\bar{\imath}$, $b\bar{\imath}$ and $y\bar{a}$, in; bang and ibang \bar{a} , from; \bar{a} , by; bit'- $p\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{a}ng$, with; $m\bar{a}nchhi$, without, etc.

Numerals.—The first six numerals are given in the table on p. 343. The suffix po in ak'-po, one, is a generic particle referring to human beings.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ang'-ka, ing'-ka, I.	hānā, thou.	$ m\bar{u}$ -go, he, she, it.
ang, my.	$\tilde{a}m$, thy.	$(\bar{u}m)$, $\bar{i}gem$, $mogom$, his, her, its.
ang-bi, mine.	$\bar{a}m$ - bi , thine.	igām-bi, mogom-bi, his, hers,
anchākā-che, I and thou.	hānā-che, you two.	mu, maka-che, moko-chi, they two.
ang-chu, ancha, my and thy.	am-cha, your two.	mugu-m, mukha-cha-cha, their two.

ang, āncha-bi, mine and thine.

in'ka-chā-ga, I and he.
ang, ān-cha-ga, my and his.
ang, ān-cha-ga-bi, mine and his.
ānkān, īnkān, I and you.
ān-ga, my and your.

ān-bi, mine and yours.
īnkān-ga, I and they.
āng-ga, my and their.
āng-ga-bi, mine and theirs.

am, kan-chā-bi, yours two.

mukha-cha-bi, theirs two.

hānā-nin, you. ām-ga, your.

kān-bi, yours.

mukha, makhā, they.
mugum-ga, makhā-ūm-cha,
their.

makha-bi, theirs.

I am far from being certain that all the forms in the above table are correct.

I-go, this; $mg\bar{u}$ -o, that, are given as demonstrative pronouns. $Mg\bar{u}$ -o is probably a misprint for $m\bar{u}go$.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{a}g$ and khi-go, who? ti-go, what? tem, how much? The indefinite particle chhang, also, is added to interrogative bases in order to form indefinite pronouns; thus, $s\bar{a}g$ -chhang, anybody; ti-chhang, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and object, and about the formation of tenses.

A dual and a plural subject of an imperative is indicated by adding chie, num'-ye, respectively. The preceding sound can be modified in different ways. Thus, mū-ye, do; mū-chie, do ye two; mū-num'-ye, do ye: lū-ye, lū-chie, lū-num'-ye, tell: nōr-e, nor-chie, nor-num'-ye, strike: sede, sede-chie, ser-num'-ye, kill: thende, then'de-chie, then'de-num'-ye, lift up: tāg'we, tagwe-chie, tag-num'-ye, bring: yēne, yen'-che. yena-num'ye, hear: tūbe, tūba-che, tūba-num'-ye, make: yūng'se, yung'si-chie, yung'-su-num'ye, put down, etc.

The suffix $\bar{a}ng$ is added to denote an object of the first person singular in $\bar{\imath}y$ - $\bar{a}ng$ -ye, give me.

The suffix of the imperative is e or ye; see the examples just given.

The negative particle is perhaps a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}n$, is not, no. 'No' is also translated $j\bar{e}$, and soh'. There is said to be a negative suffix $-\bar{i}$ -, and the negative imperative is formed by adding man'to.

RODONG OR CHAMLING.

Our information about the Rödöng or Chämling tribe of the Khambus is very scanty. They are found between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is name l after them, Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of vol. III, PART I.

Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} , $\bar{u}m$, which occurs in forms such as \bar{u} - $ng\bar{a}l\bar{u}ng$, face; $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother, etc., is by origin a pronominal prefix of the third person.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding qualifying words; thus, $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $sor\tilde{o}$ - $chh\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{a}r$ - $chh\bar{a}$, woman: $sor\tilde{o}$ - $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, son; $m\bar{a}r$ - $chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $p\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old man; $m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old woman: $khl\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{a}$, dog; $khl\bar{i}$ - $m\bar{a}$, bitch: $w\bar{a}sa\ \bar{o}p\bar{a}$, male bird; $w\bar{a}sa\ \bar{o}m\bar{a}$, female bird: $\bar{u}mp\bar{a}\ hatti$, male elephant; $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}\ hatti$, female elephant: $p\bar{i}\ \bar{u}mp\bar{a}$, bull; $p\bar{i}\ \bar{u}mm\bar{a}$, cow.

We have no information about the use of suffixes denoting number. It will be seen in what follows that such suffixes are used with pronouns, and there is no reason for supposing that the same is not the case with nouns.

The various cases are formed by adding suffixes. Thus we find $w\bar{a}$ for the agent; $d\bar{a}$ for the locative; $d\bar{a}$ -no and $d\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, for the ablative, and so on. Other locative suffixes are probably lo, la and pa; thus, khong-lo, then; dha-lo and dha-la, above; wos-pa, now; tes-pa, then, etc.

The suffix of the genitive is said to be mi or mo. The genitive suffix can be dropped, and the governed word can be indicated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governed one; thus, $p\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{\imath}m$ -chhā, cow its-young, a calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $cho d\bar{a}$, top-in, on; $chak d\bar{a}$, side-in, close to; $p\bar{\imath} d\bar{a}$, together with; ma - dang, without, and so on.

Adjectives often end in ko; thus, $k\bar{u}re-ko$, hot; $\bar{\imath}se$ and $\bar{\imath}se-ko$, bad. This ko is probably a demonstrative pronoun which adds definiteness, so that $\bar{\imath}se-ko$ should properly be translated 'the bad one.'

The first numerals will be found in the table on p. 343. The meaning of the final ra cannot be ascertained.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

 $k\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}$, $ingk\bar{a}$, I. $kh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou. $kh\bar{u}$, he, she, it. \bar{a} , ang, my. $kh\bar{a}$, thy. \bar{u} , \bar{o} , $\bar{u}m$, ung, his, her, its.ang-mo, mine. $kh\bar{a}$ -mo, thine. $kh\bar{u}$ -mo, his, hers, its.ka- \bar{i} , $ka\bar{i}$, we. $kh\bar{u}$ - \bar{i} -mo, vour. $kh\bar{u}$ - \bar{i} -mo, their.

There are no certain traces of a separate dual in the materials. It is possible that $kh\bar{u}$ -chu, they, is a dual, but the question must be left undecided.

Kai, we, is said to be used in all cases, whether the person addressed is included or not. It corresponds to kei in the dialect of Khambu described above on pp. 317 and ff. and to kai in Nācherēng, goi in Bāhing and Thūlung, and so on. The final $\bar{\imath}$ is probably a plural suffix; compare $kh\bar{u}-\bar{\imath}$, they. The suffix chu in $kh\bar{u}-chu$, they, is another plural suffix, or else it is a dual termination. The final ni in $kha-\bar{\imath}-ni$, you. is perhaps also a plural suffix; compare Limbu $khe-n\bar{\imath}$, Rāi $\bar{a}n-ni$, you, and so on. The pronoun $kh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou, is identical with $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ in other Khambu dialects.

Other pronouns are $hy\bar{a}o$, this; $hy\bar{a}o-ko$ and $hy\bar{a}-ko$, this one; $ty\bar{a}$, that, $ty\bar{a}-ko$, that one; $s\bar{o}$, which? sa, who? $d\bar{a}-ko$, what? $d\bar{e}-ma$, why? $s\bar{o}-\bar{\imath}$, anybody; $i-s\bar{a}-ma$, anybody; $d\bar{e}-\bar{\imath}$, dyeu, and $ny\bar{u}$, anything, and so on.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes to distinguish the person of the subject. The suffix ng is used to denote an object of the first person in $\bar{\imath}do$ -ng, give me; compare $\bar{\imath}du$, give.

The usual suffix of the imperative is \bar{o} or u; thus, $ch\bar{o}$, eat; $d\bar{u}ngu$, drink. Other imperatives end in \bar{a} ; thus, $riy\bar{a}$, laugh; $kh\bar{a}p\bar{a}$, weep; $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, come; $w\bar{o}n\bar{a}$, run. The final na in im'-sa-na, sleep, is perhaps a suffix of the second person plural, while im'-sa, sleep, seems to be the ordinary singular; compare Rūngchhēnbūng im'-sa, sleep thou; imsa-chi, sleep ye two; imsa-nin, sleep ye.

The negative particle is said to be a suffixed or infixed $\bar{\imath}$. It is probably contained in $a-\bar{\imath}-na$, no. A prefix ma apparently occurs in ma-dang, without, lit. probably 'notbeing.' The negative with imperatives is mi, mai, or $d\bar{a}$.

NĂCHHERĒNG.

The Nachhereng Khambus are found in what Hodgson calls Mäjh Kirant or Middle Kirant, i.e. the country between the Likhu and Ārun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the Kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of separate terms or by adding qualifying words. Thus, $w\bar{a}ch'chh\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{\imath}m'-chh\bar{a}$, woman: $\bar{u}mtopo$, husband; $y\bar{u}h'\bar{u}$, wife: solo, young man; solo-me, young woman: $\bar{u}-pa$, and $\bar{u}m-pa$, father; $\bar{u}-ma$ and $\bar{u}m-ma$, mother: passou, old man; massou, young woman: $w\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, cock; $w\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, hen: $\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{o}wa$, a male bird; $\bar{u}-ma$ $chh\bar{o}wa$, a female bird: $\bar{u}m'-pa$ $m\bar{e}is\bar{a}$, a he-buffalo; $\bar{u}m'-ma$ $m\bar{e}is\bar{a}$, a she-buffalo: $w\bar{a}ch'chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, a son; $m\bar{\imath}m'chh\bar{a}$ $chh\bar{a}$, a daughter, and so on.

We have no information about the formation of the dual and plural.

The genitive is formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word, the former being often at the same time repeated by means of a demonstrative pronoun prefixed to the latter; thus, $t\bar{a}a s\bar{a}m$, head's hair, the hair of the head; $p\bar{\imath}-mi \ \bar{u}m-chh\bar{a}$, cow its young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions, such as \bar{a} , by; $\bar{a}m$, from; pi, in; $ng\bar{a}ng$ and $m\bar{a}ng$, with; $m\bar{a}ngdi$, without.

The first five numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are apparently most closely connected with the forms occurring in Sāngpāng.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

$k\bar{a}ng\bar{a},k\bar{a},\mathbf{I}.$	$\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou.	manka, yāko, he, she, it.
	am, thy.	ūm um, his, her, its.
ang-mi, mine.	am-mi, anmi, thine.	yāk-mi, manka-mi, his, hers, its.
ka-i, I and you.	ānā-i, ān-ni-mo, you.	$yar{a}k$ -mo-w $ar{a}$, $yar{a}k$ o-i, $maka$ -i, they.
ka-i-ka, I and they.		
wo-ki, our.		
wo-ki-mi, ours.	am-ni-mo-wā, your.	yāk-mo-mi, their.

Kāngā, kā, I, is identical with the forms used in Rōdōng, Sāngpāng, Lōhōrōng, etc. We have no information as to whether the dialect possesses separate dual forms.

The plural suffix i in ka-i, we; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ -i, you, etc., also occurs in Rōdōng, Sāngpāng, Kūlung, Bāhing, etc.

Another plural suffix is ni in $\bar{a}n$ -ni-mo, you. Mo is perhaps also a plural suffix; compare $y\bar{a}k$ - $movo\bar{a}$, they.

Demonstrative pronouns are $\bar{u}n\bar{u}$, $an-ng\bar{a}$, this; $kh\bar{a}nko\bar{u}$ and $y\bar{a}k-ng\bar{a}$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s$, who? $\bar{a}s-n\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$, which? $\bar{u}-l\bar{e}$, what? The final $l\bar{e}$ in the two latter forms is probably the verb substantive, compare $l\bar{e}$, yes, literally 'it is.' An interrogative base $d\bar{e}$ occurs in $d\bar{e}l$, how much? By adding sa to the interrogative bases indefinite pronouns are formed; thus, $\bar{a}sa$, anybody; $\bar{u}-sa$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes in order to indicate the person and number of the subject. \mathcal{A} in $p\bar{\imath}$ -a-wa, give me, is probably a pronominal suffix of the first person denoting the object. The imperative of the base $p\bar{\imath}$, to give, with an object of the third person is $p\bar{\imath}$ -y-o.

Forms such as $l\bar{e}$ and $h\bar{o}$, yes, literally 'it is,' seem to show that the base alone is used as a present. We have no other information about the formation of the various tenses.

The imperative ends in u or o, or else in a; thus, $ch\bar{u}$ -u, eat; $d\bar{u}ng$ -o, drink; yop'su, strike; $s\bar{\iota}tu$, kill; $\bar{\iota}msa$, sleep; $rh\bar{e}sa$, laugh; $kh\bar{a}pa$, weep; $n\bar{\iota}na$, speak; $t\bar{a}wa$, come; $kh\bar{a}ta$, go. We cannot decide if the consonant preceding the a forms part of the suffix or belongs to the base.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$, thus, $m\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , not-is, no. $N\bar{o}$ is used instead if the verb is in the imperative. Hodgson mentions a negative infix is-a, but he does not give any instance of its use.

KÜLUNG.

The home of the Kulung sept of the Khambus is the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them. Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi. 1857. pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

The Kūlung dialect is most closely connected with Nāchherēng. It is essentially identical with the dialect described above on pp. 317 and ff.

Nouns.—The prefix $\bar{u}m$ in words such as $\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar{\iota}$, egg; $\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{\iota}tta$, horn; $\bar{u}m$ - $t\bar{u}ppo$, husband; $\bar{u}m'$ - $p\bar{a}$, father, etc., is probably a demonstrative pronoun and connected with wa, his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms or else by adding words meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $\bar{u}m'-p\bar{a}$, father; $\bar{u}m-m\bar{a}$, mother: $w\bar{a}chchh\bar{a}$, man; $mim'chh\bar{a}$, woman: $t\bar{u}ppo$, husband; yuh'u, wife: solo, young man; solo-me, young woman: $wachchh\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, son; $mim'chh\bar{a}-chh\bar{a}$, daughter: $w\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, cock; $w\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, hen: $w\bar{a}p-chh\bar{o}wa$, a male bird; $w\bar{a}m-chh\bar{o}wa$, a female bird: $m\bar{e}si$ $m\bar{i}-pa$ and $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$ $m\bar{e}si$, a he-buffalo; $m\bar{e}si$

 $m\bar{\imath}$ - $m\dot{a}$ and $\bar{u}m'm\bar{a}$ $m\bar{e}si$, a she-buffalo. The initial \bar{u} of $\bar{u}m'p\bar{a}$, $\bar{u}m'$ - $m\bar{a}$, is dropped when those words are added to words ending in a vowel; thus, $p\bar{\imath}$ - $m'p\bar{a}$, bull; $p\bar{\imath}$ -i-m'- $m\bar{a}$, cow.

There are no instances in the materials of a dual or a plural.

The genitive is apparently formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, $w\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$, bird's egg. In pi-m'chh \bar{a} , cow's young, calf, an m' has apparently been inserted. It is probably the possessive pronoun of the third person.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are nga, \bar{a} and $pik\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , by; $g\bar{a}mpi$, lo, with; $m\bar{a}ndi$, without; $p\bar{a}$, pi, $g\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{a}$, pi- $t\bar{u}$, and them- $t\bar{u}$, in, and so on.

The first ten numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They most closely correspond to the forms in use in Nāchherēng, Lōhōrōng, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

kongā, I.	$\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, thou.	nāko, mūko, netako, he, she, it.
		wa, his, her, its.
	$\bar{a}m$ - mi , thine.	nakwa-mi, his, hers, its.
$kek\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , ko - i , $koni$, we.	$\bar{a}ni$, $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - i , you.	$n\bar{a}ko$ - ni , they.
wokhi-mi, our.	$\bar{a}m$ - ni - mi , your.	kwachi-mi, na-kwa-chi-mi,
		their.

The forms kwa-chi-mi and na-kwa-chi-mi, their, are perhaps dual forms. Ko-i and ko-ni, we, are perhaps the inclusive, and $kek\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , the exclusive form; compare Nāchherēng kai, I and you; kai-ka, I and they. Hodgson, however, registers all the three forms as inclusive.

Demonstrative pronouns are $ingk\bar{o}ng$, inko-pi, this; $m\bar{u}ngkong$, $n\bar{a}kong$ and nakopi, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}s\bar{e}$, who? $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{a}sdatukwa$, which? $\bar{u}so$ and $\bar{u}i$, what? $d\bar{a}i$ and $d\bar{a}t\bar{u}kwa$, why? $S\bar{o}$, and, also, is used as an indefinite particle; thus, $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{a}-s\bar{o}$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and the object, or about the formation of tenses.

The final \bar{a} in pi-y- \bar{a} , give me, is perhaps a pronominal suffix indicating an object of the first person.

 $Y\bar{e}$, it is, yes, is probably the present tense of a verb substantive $y\bar{e}$, and apparently shows that the mere base can be used as a present.

The mere base can also be used as an imperative; thus, $n\bar{e}$, take. In most cases, however, an u, o, or an a is added; thus, keru, strike; dungngu, drink; cho, eat; $p\bar{o}$ -a, tell; $n\bar{e}na$, speak; $b\bar{a}na$, come; $kh\bar{a}pa$, weep; $th\bar{o}r\bar{e}pa$, stand; $kh\bar{a}ta$, go; im'sa, sleep; $g\bar{e}sa$, laugh; $b\bar{u}lsa$, run, and so on.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or man; thus, $man'n\bar{o}i$, good. Hodgson also mentions a negative infix i, but does not give any example. The negative with imperatives is na.

THULUNG.

The habitat of the Thūlung sept of the Khambus is in the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers, in the so-called $M\tilde{a}jh$, or Middle, Kirānt.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirântis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Árun, which province is named after them, Kirânt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Thülung is most closely related with Külung on one side, and Chourasya, Khāling, and Dūmi on the other.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} in \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother, etc., is identical with \bar{u} , his, her, its.

Gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}p$ and \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; $m\bar{a}m$ and \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother: $w\bar{a}schwe$, man; wchwe, woman: $w\bar{a}schwe$ - $chw\bar{e}$, son; $mis'che\cdot chw\bar{e}$ - $chw\bar{e}$ and $m\bar{a}schwe$ - $chw\bar{e}$, daughter: $gr\bar{o}k'pu$ - $p\bar{o}$, cock; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ -pwa- $p\bar{o}$ and \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ - $p\bar{o}$, hen: \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$ $m\bar{e}si$, a he-buffalo; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ $m\bar{e}si$, a she-buffalo: \bar{u} -pa bo, a boar; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$ $bw\bar{a}$, a sow: $ng\bar{a}$ - \bar{u} , an old man; $ng\bar{a}$ -mi, an old woman, and so on.

There are no instances in the materials of a dual or a plural of nouns.

The genitive is sometimes expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, $bh\bar{e}d\bar{a}$ chw \bar{e} , sheep's young, lamb. A genitive suffix $k\bar{a}$ -m can be added and the governed word is, at the same time, commonly repeated before the governing one by means of a pronominal prefix; thus, gai- $k\bar{a}$ -m \bar{u} -chw \bar{e} , cow-of its-young. calf. The suffix $k\bar{a}$ -m is a compound consisting of the suffix $k\bar{a}$, which also occurs in the meaning 'by,' 'by means of,' and which must have the meaning 'in,' 'with,' and a second suffix m, which is originally a demonstrative pronoun or verb substantive, and which is used to form adjectives and nouns of agency in the same way as Bāhing mi. The literal meaning of gai- $k\bar{a}$ -m is accordingly 'cow-with-being.'

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $k\bar{a}$, by; $d\bar{a}$ -ng and $k\bar{a}$ -ng, from; $n\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{u}$, in; nung, with; $m\bar{a}nthi$, without, and so on. A postposition $k\bar{a}$, in, with, must be inferred from $k\bar{a}$ -ng, from.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. The forms ending in le are used if the qualified word denotes an animal, those ending in ong, chi, etc., when human beings are counted. Higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

$egin{aligned} go, \ \mathbf{I}. \ & ar{a}, \ \mathbf{my}. \ & ar{a} ext{-}mar{a}, \ \mathbf{mine}. \end{aligned}$	$g\bar{a}na$, thou. $\bar{\imath}$, thy. $ye\text{-}m\bar{a}$, thine.	$h\bar{a}na$, he, she, it. \bar{u} , his, her, its. \bar{o} - $k\bar{a}m$, $hanom$ - $k\bar{a}m$, his, hers,
goi, I and you. goku, I and they.	$gar{a}$ - $nm{i}$, you.	its. hanom-mim, hanom-nu, they.
īki-mā, mine and yours. āki-mā, mine and theirs.	i-ni-mā, yours.	hanom-mi-kām, their.

Hodgson gives goi as the exclusive and goku as the inclusive form. I have distinguished between them after the analogy of Bāhing gōi and gōku. I have also supposed $\bar{\imath}ki(-m\bar{a})$ and $\bar{a}ki(-m\bar{a})$, our, to correspond to Bāhing $\bar{\imath}ke$, wake, our, respectively.

There are certainly also dual forms in addition to the above, for Hodgson gives wochi, these two, as the dual of wo, this.

Demonstrative pronouns are $w\bar{o}$ and $w\bar{o}r\bar{a}m$, this; wo-chi, these two; wo-mim, these; $my\bar{o}$, $my\bar{o}r\bar{a}m$, and $han\bar{u}m$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are $sy\bar{u}$ and $\bar{u}h\bar{e}m$, who \hat{z} $h\bar{u}m$, what \hat{z} Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding bwa, also, to the interrogative bases; thus, syu-bwa, anyone; ham-bwa, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes for indicating the person and number of the subject and object, or about the formation of the various tenses. The suffix $\bar{a}ng$ in $gw\bar{a}$ - $\bar{a}ng$, give me, denotes that the object is of the first person singular.

 $B\bar{u}$, yes, is probably the base of a word meaning 'to be,' used as a present. *Mi-si*, yes, literally 'it-is,' perhaps contains a suffix si.

The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, $p\bar{e}$, eat; $n\bar{e}$, take. Other imperatives end in a; thus, $b\bar{a}ka$, wake; $b\bar{i}ka$, come; $gw\bar{a}$ -ka, give; $d\bar{u}nga$, drink; $l\bar{i}ba$, be silent; $w\bar{a}nda$, run; $j\bar{e}sa$, speak; dak'sa, go, and so on.

The negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{e}$, $m\bar{i}$ or $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{e}e$, not-is, no; $m\bar{i}$ -ny $\bar{u}p\bar{a}$, not good, bad; $m\bar{a}nthi$, without. Another negative prefix is $d\bar{o}kh\bar{o}n$, which corresponds to Khāling dokhai; thus, $d\bar{o}kh\bar{o}n$ $dhy\bar{u}pa$, not long, short; $d\bar{o}kh\bar{o}n$ $y\bar{e}pa$, not tall, short.

CHOURASYA.

The Chourasya Khambus live in what Hodgson calls Pallo, or Further Kirānt, i.e. the hills from the Arun to the Mechi and the Singilela Range.

AUTHORITY-

Hodson. B. H.,—Comparative Vocabulary of the several Languages (Dialects) of the celebrated people called Kirántis, now occupying the Eastern-most province of the kingdom of Népál, or the basin of the river Arun, which province is named after them Kiránt. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi. 1857, pp. 333 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 176 and ff.

Our information about the Chourasya dialect is even more unsatisfactory than is the case with other forms of Khambu. It seems to occupy a somewhat independent position, and often differs from connected forms of speech in grammar and vocabulary. Dumi and Khaling are apparently most closely connected.

B and m, d and n, respectively, are apparently interchangeable; thus, $s\bar{a}\bar{t}a$ -me, young woman; $t\bar{a}$ -be, daughter; bisi, Dūmi miksi, eye; $d\bar{o}b\bar{u}$, Kūlung n $\bar{o}bo$, nose; di, Kūlung ning, name; $dw\bar{a}m$, Dūmi n $\bar{a}m$, sun, etc. It will be seen that d in the last instances corresponds to n in connected forms of speech.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way, by means of different words or of qualifying additions. Thus, \bar{a} -po, father; \bar{a} -mo, mother: $ng\bar{e}$ -w \bar{a} , old man; $ng\bar{e}$ · $b\bar{e}$, cld woman: $t\bar{a}$ -wa, son; $t\bar{a}$ -be, daughter: \bar{o} cho and $w\bar{o}$ cho, man, husband; $b\bar{v}$ cho, wife: vol. III, Part I

ācho-bēbā, boy; bīcho-bēbā, girl: sālācho, young man; sāla-me, young woman: āpo chāli and chāli ngāpo, dog; chāli nīma and ābomo chāli, bitch: āpo bīya, bull; āmo bīya, cow.

There are no instances of a dual or a plural in the materials available.

The genitive is apparently formed by simply putting the governed before the governing word without any suffix; thus, $b\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}ng'gya$, bird's egg; $b\bar{\imath}ya$ $n\bar{u}nu$, cow's young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as bi-lo, with; kho, by; lo, in; lo-ngo, from; sokho, without, and so on.

The first four numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are apparently more closely related to the numerals in Thūlung than to those in other Khambu dialects.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

ūnggū, I.ngo-me, ūnu, thou.time, yo-me, ya-me, he, she, it.ā, my.i-leme, thine.nge-me-leme, his, hers, its.ūnggū-ticha, we.ngo-me-ticha, you.to-me-ticha, they.iki-leme, our.mūyem-leme, your.ngo-no-ma-ticha-leme, their.

The above table probably contains some mistakes. Corresponding forms are Dūmi and Khāling $\bar{u}ng$, I; Khāling \bar{a} , my; $\bar{\imath}$, thy; Dūmi iki, our; $\bar{a}nu$, thou; tem and tami, this, etc.

Interrogative pronouns are $\bar{a}ch\bar{u}$, who? which? $th\bar{a}m\bar{e}$, which? $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, what? Indefinite pronouns are formed by adding $y\bar{e}$, also, to interrogatives; thus, $\bar{a}ch\bar{u}-y\bar{e}$, anybody; $\bar{a}m\bar{a}-y\bar{e}$, anything.

Verbs.—We have no information about the use of pronominal suffixes to denote the person and number of the subject and object, or of the formation of tenses.

There is apparently a verb substantive ti; thus, $t\bar{\imath}$ -me, it is, yes. The final me of this form is probably a copula, which is used as an assertive particle, and is probably connected with the final me in many pronouns.

Forms ending in \bar{a} , $t\bar{a}$, $st\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, etc., are given as imperatives; thus, $lih\bar{a}$, be silent; $gak\bar{a}$, give; $h\bar{a}lt\bar{a}$, walk; $phitt\bar{a}$, bring; $b\bar{a}kst\bar{a}$, speak; $lev\bar{a}st\bar{a}$, go; $j\bar{a}-k\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, eat; $pi-k\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, come, etc. The base alone is used as an imperative in $n\bar{e}$, take.

The negative particle is a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus $\bar{a}tti$, it is not, no; $\bar{a}d\bar{u}ch\bar{o}$, not-good, bad. Before imperatives $n\bar{o}$ can be used instead.

KHĀLING.

The Khāling Khambus are found in the so-called $M\tilde{a}jh$, or Middle, Kirānt, *i.e.* the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITIES-

Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

Khāling is most closely related to Dūmi and the so-called Rāi.

Nouns.—The demonstrative base \bar{u} , that, its, is used as a prefix in words such as \bar{u} -chy \bar{e} , child; \bar{u} -dhong, head; \bar{u} -nyol, day; \bar{u} -p \bar{a} p, father, etc.

Gender is distinguished by using different terms, or else by adding suffixes and words denoting the sex; thus, \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{a}m$, mother: $\bar{a}dumbu$, husband; \bar{u} -may, wife: $las'b\bar{a}$, man; $mesp\bar{a}$, woman: $p\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old man; $m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old woman: $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -chye, young man; $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -me, young woman: koklap, cock; $\bar{u}ph\bar{a}m$, hen: $\bar{u}p\bar{a}p$ $khl\bar{e}b$, dog; $\bar{u}m\bar{a}m$ $khl\bar{e}b$, bitch: $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $chy\bar{e}$, son; $melsim\bar{a}$ - $chy\bar{e}$, daughter: chwe-chwe and $las'b\bar{a}$ chwe, boy; $m\bar{e}lsem$ - $chy\bar{e}$, girl, etc.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural, but we do not know how the dual and the plural are formed.

The genitive is formed by adding po as in Dūmi or $k\bar{a}m$ as in Thūlung and repeating the governed word by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing one; thus, $grot-po\ \bar{u}-chy\bar{e}s\bar{a}$, goat-of its-young, kid; $gai-k\bar{a}m\ \bar{u}-chy\bar{e}s\bar{a}$, cow-of its-young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $b\bar{\imath}$, in; $bi-k\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , by; $p\bar{o}-bi$ and $k\bar{o}lo$, with; $t\bar{\imath}$, on, upon; $m\bar{a}ngth\bar{a}$, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in twenties.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

LIUMUUMB. INC TONOWN	ag are the personal pronou	по .—
ūng, I.	in, thou.	$t\bar{a}m$, $m\bar{a}m$, $y\bar{a}k\bar{a}m$, he, she, it.
\tilde{a} , my.	ī, thy.	\bar{u} , $y\bar{a}k\bar{a}m$, his, her, its.
\bar{a} -po, mine.	$\bar{\imath}n$ - po , thine.	yākām-po, his, hers, its.
i-chi, in-chi, I and thou.	ye-chi, ān-chi, you two.	$\bar{o}m$ -sa, they two.
is, my and thy.	yēs, your two.	ūnsū, ū, amsa, yākām-sū, their
ōchā, ãchū, I and he.		two.
ōs, my and his.	·	
īk, I and you.	yēn, you.	am- ham , the y .
ik, my and your.	yēn, your.	yākām, ū, their.
$\bar{o}k$, I and they.		
$\bar{o}k$, my and their.	i	

It will be seen that the dual and the plural are frequently left unmarked in the third person. Forms such as $\bar{o}ch\bar{u}$ -po, mine and his; $\bar{\imath}k$ -po, mine and yours, etc., are of course used in addition to those just registered.

Demonstrative pronouns are tom-ngā, this; $m\bar{a}m$ -ngā, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $kh\bar{a}m$, who? mang-ga, what? hebe, how much? $kh\bar{a}-bi$, where? $m\bar{a}-bi$, why? $s\bar{u}i-y\bar{o}$, anybody; $m\bar{a}ng-y\bar{o}$, anything.

Verbs.—We are very unsatisfactorily informed about the use of pronominal suffixes to indicate the person and number of the subject and object, and about the formation of tenses.

A dual subject with an imperative is indicated by adding chi or sometimes $\bar{\imath}$ or by inserting it before the imperative suffix e. The corresponding plural suffix is $n\bar{\imath}$ -y-e, na-y-e, or s-na-y-e. Thus, sede, kill; se-chi, kill ye two; se-s-na-y-e, kill ye; pid-e, $p\bar{\imath}$ -ch $\bar{\imath}$ -e, $p\bar{\imath}$ -s-naye, bring; $kh\bar{a}tte$, $kh\bar{a}tte$ -ch $\bar{\imath}$ -e, kho-s-naye, take away; $ng\bar{a}nde$, $ng\bar{a}nde$ -ch $\bar{\imath}$ -e, $ng\bar{a}ndi$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ -ye, put down; $m\bar{u}$ -ye, $m\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ -ye, do, etc.

The suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is added in order to denote an object of the first person singular in bi- $ng\bar{a}$ -ye, give me.

It has already been remarked that the imperative ends in e or ye. That is not, however, always the case, and we also find imperatives such as leba, be silent; am'si, sleep, etc.

The negative particles are a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ and a prefixed $dokh\bar{a}i$ (compare Thūlung $d\bar{o}kh\bar{o}n$); thus, $ma\cdot\tilde{a}$, not is, no; $m\bar{a}$ - $ny\bar{u}pa$, not good, bad; $dokh\bar{a}i$ -song'-pa, not long, short. The negative imperative is formed by adding $m\bar{o}$.

DŪMI.

The Dūmi Khambus are found in the so-called Mājh, or Middle, Kirānt, i.e. the hills between the Likhu and Arun rivers.

AUTHORITY-

Hodgson, B. H., -Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff.

Dumi is most closely connected with Khāling and with the dialect described below under the head of Rāi.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{u} in words such as \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, father; \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, mother; $\bar{u}tt\bar{\iota}$, egg, etc., is by origin a demonstrative pronoun.

Gender is indicated by using different terms or else by adding suffixes and words indicating the sex. Thus, \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, \bar{u} - $py\bar{a}p$ and i- $py\bar{a}p$, father; \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, mother: $las'b\bar{e}$, man; $m\bar{e}sb\bar{e}$, woman: $\bar{a}d\bar{u}mbo$, husband; \bar{u} - $me\bar{i}$, wife: $p\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old man; $m\bar{a}chh\bar{a}$, old woman: $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -chyo, young man; $s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$ -me, young woman: \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, or \bar{u} - $py\bar{a}p$, $khl\bar{e}b$, dog; \bar{u} - $m\bar{u}$, or \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, $khl\bar{e}b$, bitch: gyai- $p\bar{o}$ - \bar{u} -chyo \bar{u} - $py\bar{a}p$, male calf; gyai- $p\bar{o}$ - \bar{u} -chyo \bar{u} - $my\bar{a}m$, female calf: $lasb\bar{e}$ -chyo, son; $m\bar{e}sb\bar{e}$ -chyo, daughter, and so on.

There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. We do not know how the dual and the plural are expressed.

The suffix of the genitive is $p\bar{o}$, and the governed word is repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governing one; thus, $b\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{o}$ \bar{u} - $ch\bar{u}$, cow-of its-young, calf.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are bi, $y\bar{o}$, in; $b\bar{\imath}$, ke, with; bi- $k\bar{a}$, from; \bar{a} , $ng\bar{a}$, by, etc.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the table on p. 343. They are closely related to the forms in the so-called Rai.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

in, ānu, thou.	nam, yākām, momi, he, she, it.
\bar{a} , thy.	ũ, mom, his, her, its.
$\bar{a}ppo$, thine.	mom-po, his, hers, its.
ye-chi, you two.	yākām-sū, ummi, they two.
ye-chi, ān-chi, your two.	yākām-sū, um-ni, mom-ni, their
	two.
ānni, you.	yākām-hām, mam-hām, they,
	their.
ānni, your.	
•	
	ā, thy. āppo, thine. ye-chi, you two. ye-chi, ān-chi, your two. ānni, you.

Demonstrative pronouns are tami, tem, and tem- $ng\bar{a}$, this; momi, $y\bar{a}k\bar{a}m$, and $y\bar{a}k\bar{a}m$ - $ng\bar{a}$, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $sy\bar{u}$ and $sy\bar{u}$ -go, who? $m\bar{a}ng$ and $mimng\bar{a}$, what? $m\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$ -ne, why? $sy\bar{u}$ - $y\bar{o}$, anybody; $m\bar{a}ng$ - $y\bar{o}$, anything, and so on.

Verbs.—The use of pronominal suffixes and prefixes in order to indicate the person and number of the subject and the object, and the formation of the tenses are probably the same as in the so-called Rāi. A suffix $ng\bar{a}$ is used in order to indicate an object of the first person singular in $b\bar{\imath}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, give me.

The base alone, and with suffixes such as e and a, is used as an imperative; thus, $j\bar{e}$, speak; $p\bar{u}$, come; $t\bar{u}ng$ -e, drink; sed-e, kill; $r\bar{i}pha$, stand up, etc.

The negative particle is a prefixed ma, mo, or $m\bar{u}$; thus, $mo - \bar{o}$, not-is, no; $m\bar{u}$ -bhang'pa, not-handsome, ugly. The negative imperative is formed by adding $m\bar{u}$.

RĀI.

The country between the Dud Kosi and Tambor rivers in Nepal is inhabited by the tribes known as Jimdārs and Yākhās. They claim that their country alone is properly called *Kirānt dēś*. They call themselves Rāis.

The Jimdārs have often been considered to be identical with the Khambus. According to information collected for the purposes of the last Census of 1901, however, the two terms are quite distinct. 'The Khambus of Darjeeling often assume the title of Rāi and claim to be the same as Jimdārs, but their pretensions are not admitted in Nepal.' In this place, where we are only concerned with language, the difference between Jimdār and Khambu is of no importance.

Hodgson does not use the designation Jimdar, but includes the tribes in question in the Kiranti group. The name 'Jimdar' is said to be a corruption of the Hindostani 'Zamīndar' used in the sense of 'crofter.' 'Rāi' is the well-known Indian honorific title.

No information has been forthcoming about the number of Jimdars in and outside Nepal. At the various Censuses and during the preparatory operations of this Survey they have been confounded with the Khambus.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in a dialect called Rāi have been forwarded from the Nepal Darbar. The Parable is written in a dialect which corresponds to what Hodgson called Dūmi. The same is the case with the bulk of the list. Some few forms, however, belong to a dialect which more closely corresponds to Hodgson's Bāhing. Those forms have been printed within parenthesis.

According to Mr. Gait, the Jimdārs speak more than one dialect. It is probable that the Dūmis and Bāhings are sub-tribes of the Jimdārs. We have not, however, sufficient information about the various Nepalese tribes and their habitat, and I therefore give the Rāi texts below under the head of Rāi, as I have received them.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the several Dialects of the Kirántee Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 350 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 194 and ff. Contains Bāhing and Dūmi vocabularies.

Hodgson, B. H.,—Bāhing Vocabulary. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 486 and ff.; Vol. xxvii, 1858, pp. 393 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. i, London, 1880, pp. 320 and ff. Contains a Bāhing vocabulary, grammar, and a specimen of the dialect.

HUNTER, H. H., -A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868.

The remarks on Rāi grammar which follow are based on the Parable of the Prodigal Son reproduced on pp. 380 and ff., and on such forms in the list of words as belong to the same dialect. A full analysis of the Bāhing dialect has been given above on pp. 327 and ff.

Pronunciation.—Short and long vowels are sometimes interchanged. Thus, the ablative suffix $k\bar{a}$ also occurs as ka. The final vowel is sometimes dropped altogether; thus, kusta-k, going; but phu-chu-ka, arriving.

I and e, u and o, respectively, are sometimes interchanged; thus, ngeru, finished; ngirum, finishing: mo, were; mu-sa, being. Instead of o we often find wa; thus, o and wa, my.

I is sometimes interchangeable with u; thus, lal-bu, and lal-bi, before. The final bu, bi in this word is the usual suffix of the locative, which is commonly written bi. The actual pronunciation is perhaps $b\ddot{u}$.

A or \bar{a} is sometimes also interchangeable with o; thus, mom and mam, that; ya-bu and yo-bi, behind.

The dialect has four gutturals, four palatals, four dentals, and four labials. The cerebrals t and d occur in some few words. It is not certain if their pronunciation differs from that of the corresponding dentals.

D and t are interchanged in words such as lu-tu and lu-du, said. Instead of $n\bar{a}$, name, Hodgson gives nang under the head of $D\bar{u}mi$.

Prefixes.—The prefixes used in the formation of words are mostly pronominal. The prefix u, which is originally an abbreviated form of the personal pronoun of the third person, is often used as a mere formative; thus, u-nu, nose; u-kam, mouth; u-chu, son. If such words are qualified by a possessive pronoun of the first or second persons, the prefix u is replaced by o or wa, my; \bar{a} , thy, respectively. The prefix does not necessarily belong to the word, but such ideas as 'nose,' 'mouth,' 'son,' etc., are not conceived in the abstract but put into relation with somebody, so that, instead of saying 'nose,' etc., we say 'my nose,' 'thy nose,' 'his nose,' etc., according to circumstances.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral tik-pu, one, is often used as an indefinite article. If the qualified noun denotes a human being, the Aryan $jan\bar{a}$, person, is sometimes substituted for the final pu of tik-pu; thus, tik- $jan\bar{a}$ minu, one-person man, a man.

Nouns—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words denoting the gender; thus, pu, father; mu, mother: $s\tilde{a}ry\tilde{a}$, bull; bhi, cow: khibu, dog; khibu-me, bitch: chhangur $bok\bar{a}$, he geat; chhangur, she goat; darhya mirga, a male deer; mirga me, a female deer: wa-lanchu, brother; wa-michun, sister.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The usual suffixes of the plural are mul and $h\bar{a}m$; thus, pu-mul, fathers; $ch\bar{a}kara-h\bar{a}m$, servants.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The base alone is also used as a dative; thus, chākara-hām lu-ti-ni,

RAI DIALECT. 375

servants said, he said to the servants. Sometimes, however, the Aryan suffix $l\bar{a}i$, for, is used instead; thus, $pu-l\bar{a}i$, to the father.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is also used as an instrumental. It is formed by adding the suffix \bar{a} ; thus, $pu-\bar{a}\ lu-du$, the father-by said; $riba-\bar{a}\ pud\bar{a}$, ropes-with bind.

The suffix of the ablative is ka, which is usually preceded by one of the suffixes la or bi; thus, pu-la-ka, from a father; tam-bi-ka, from here.

Bi is the usual suffix of the locative and terminative. Thus, kim-bi, in the house; khur-bi, upon his neck. It has already been remarked that the final i of this postposition sometimes interchanges with u. Compare the compound postposition gho-bu, in the interior of, in, into. The suffix la which often precedes the ka of the ablative is probably another suffix of the locative. Compare yo-lam, after; yo-pi, behind.

The usual suffix of the genitive is pu or po; thus, pu-pu, of a father; min-po, of a man. The governing noun is often repeated by means of a pronominal prefix before the governed noun; thus, mam-po u-pu, him-of his-father, his father.

Another genitive suffix m occurs in forms such as del-bi-m tik-pu pastya, village-in-of a shopkeeper, a shopkeeper of the village. It is not used as a genitive suffix in the proper sense of the word, but is added to other forms in order to transform them into adjectives or relative participles.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as de-bi, near; $k\bar{a}i$, with; lal-bi, before; yo-bi, behind; lim-bi, under, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify and are often put in the genitive; thus, ghala-pu siso, great famine; jaadu chuchu, a bad boy.

The particle of comparison is likandu; thus, um-po $w\bar{a}$ -michum likandu um-po $w\bar{a}$ -lanchu rippu mota, his sister than his brother tall is, his brother is taller than his sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. The numerals twelve to nineteen are formed by adding two, three, etc., to tik, i.e. tik-ri, ten. Thus, tik-sak, twelve; tik-maluk, fourteen. Note tik-raj, seventeen. 'Eleven' is tikluk. Similarly are formed $s\bar{a}k$ -tik, twenty-one; $s\bar{a}jh$ -masi, twenty-two; $s\bar{a}k$ -sup, twenty-three; $s\bar{a}k$ -pok, twenty-five; $s\bar{a}k$ -jak, twenty-six; sup-tik, thirty-one; sup-si, thirty-three; sup-bhaluk, thirty-four; suph-jhak, thirty-six; tap-tambu (sic), thirty-nine; $bh\bar{a}luk$ -ti, forty-one; $bh\bar{a}luk$ - $bh\bar{a}$, forty-four, etc.

Note also jhakari, sixty; rākari, seventy; rekkuri, eighty; tamburi, ninety.

Many of these forms are curious. The whole method of counting is, however, Indo-Chinese.

The numerals precede the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The principal forms of the personal pronouns will be found in the table which follows. There are no traces of a dual in the specimens forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. Hodgson's Dūmi vocabulary contains separate forms for the dual, and also double sets of the dual and the plural of the first person, one including and one excluding the person addressed. I have added several forms from Hodgson's

vocabulary within parenthesis. I have also followed him in distinguishing between an exclusive and inclusive form of the dual and the plural of the first person.

```
ănu, ānā, (in), thou.
                                                               um, mom, mam, yākam, he.
ang, angu, I.
                                                                um-\bar{a}, etc., by him.
ang-\bar{a}, by me.
                              \bar{a}n\bar{a}-\bar{a}, by thee.
                                                                um-po, u, etc., his.
                              \bar{a}-po, \bar{a}, thy.
o-po, wa-po, o, wa, my.
(ī-chi, I and thou.)
                              (ye-chi, you two.)
                                                                (um-mi, yākum-su, they two.)
(\bar{o}-ch\bar{u}, I and he.)
                              (ye-chi-po, ān-chi-po, of | (um-ni-po, mom-ni-po, yākam-
(ī-chi-po,
               mine
                       and
 thine.)
                                 you two.)
                                                                  su-po, of them two.)
(\bar{o}-chu-po, \tilde{a}-chi-po, my
 and his.)
i-ki, in-ki, I and you. an-ni, you.
                                                                k\bar{a}-mul, mam-hām, etc., they.
ang-ku, I and they.
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Hodgson further gives $\bar{o}nge$, I and they, genitive ok-po, ok. $\bar{A}p$ -po, your, has been influenced by Hindī.

The form mom, he, looks like a noun of agency formed from the verb substantive mo by adding the pronoun um. A suffix m, i.e. perhaps um, is not infrequently used to form nouns of agency and relative participles from other words. It corresponds to Bāhing me. Thus, mam del-bi-m tik-janā minu, that village-in-being one-person man, a man of that village; ang dok-ta-m ansa-bhāg, I get-shall-that share, the share which I shall get; mit-chu-m, died-he, the dead one, dead.

The forms o, wa, my; \bar{a} , thy; u, his, are used as pronominal prefixes with nouns; thus, o-ngasi- $h\bar{a}m$, my companions; $\bar{a}p$ -po \bar{a} - $w\bar{a}$, your brother; um-po u-chu, his son. It has already been remarked that the prefix u is sometimes used as a mere formative. Compare \bar{u} - $s\bar{u}ta$, raw, in Hodgson's Dūmi vocabulary.

The verb is, as is also the case in other connected forms of speech, a noun, and the pronominal prefixes should, therefore, be expected to be used with verbs. So far as we can judge from the specimens, this is, however, only the case with the prefix \bar{a} , thy. Compare $bhoj\ \bar{a}$ -mu, feast you-made; $\bar{a}nu\ sadhai\ ang\ k\bar{a}i\ \bar{a}$ -mo-la, you always me with you-are; \bar{a} -ki-du, thou-boughtest. Compare Limbu.

The forms ngu and nga are apparently used as suffixes of the first person. Compare $m\bar{a}$ -ngu, I did; mu-nga- $t\bar{a}$, I am doing; mo- $ng\bar{a}$, I was; be- $ng\bar{a}$, give me; mo- $ng\bar{a}$ -ni, make me.

Demonstrative pronouns are tum, tom, tam, this; mom, mam, yākam, that. Compare the personal pronoun of the third person.

The interrogative pronouns are bo and a-bo, who? $m\bar{a}$, what? hit-po, how many? etc. A form $\bar{a}s$, who? must be inferred from $\bar{a}s$ - \bar{a} -yo, by anyone. Compare $m\bar{a}$ -yo, anything, which word shows that indefinite pronouns are formed by adding yo, even, also, to the interrogatives.

An interrogative pronoun is sometimes also used as a kind of relative; thus, o-po $m\bar{a}$ go tum $\bar{a}p$ -pong, mine what is this thine, all that I have is thine. Relative clauses are, however, usually expressed by means of relative participles.

Verbs.—It has already been remarked that the verb is still virtually a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent; there is no passive; and verbal

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forms are freely used in connexion with postpositions. It has also been remarked that pronominal prefixes and suffixes are, to a small extent, used in order to denote the subject and object. This tendency towards pronominalization is, however, less pronounced than in other connected dialects such as Limbu.

Verb substantive.—The most common base of the verb substantive is mo or mu. It has, besides, the fuller meaning of sitting down, residing. In addition to mo we also find go. Other bases which are used with the same meaning are chhu and wa, and perhaps also ng in $\bar{a}p$ -po-ng, it is thine. The final ng of this latter word is perhaps only a euphonic nasalization of the vowel.

Finite verb.—The materials available are not sufficient for giving a detailed sketch of Rāi conjugation. The remarks which follow give a short survey of the principal forms contained in the specimen.

Present time.—The base alone is used as a present; thus, \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}$ wa, thy name what is?

The most common suffix of the present tense is ta or $t\bar{a}$; thus, ang mo- $t\bar{a}$, I am; ang- \bar{a} $y\bar{a}m$ -ta, I strike; $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} $y\bar{a}m$ -ta, you strike. In mu-nga- $t\bar{a}$, I am doing, the infix nga apparently denotes the subject.

Some verbs insert an s before ta; thus, mis-tā, I die; khus-ta, I go, thou goest.

In $angku \ m^n k - t\bar{a}$, we are, a suffix k has been added to the base before $t\bar{a}$. Mu-k is formally a participle meaning 'being.' The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is, therefore, probably a form of the copula.

The suffix ta can also be preceded by other suffixes, such as ja, tha, thing; thus, mo-ja-ta, he is sitting; um- \bar{a} yam-tha-ta, he strikes; um khus-thing-tu, he goes. The last mentioned form shows that ta is sometimes replaced by tu. Instances only occur in the third person singular. Compare, however, past time, below.

In $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} yam-tha-tis, thou strikest, tis has been substituted for ta. Another suffix of the present is ni, which is usually preceded by other suffixes such as ti and bi; thus, dok-ti-ni, they are getting; ang-mul (sic) \bar{a} -mo-bi-ni, you are. An m has been added in umul- $h\bar{a}m$ - \bar{a} yom-ti-ni-m, they strike. Compare the remarks on the formation of nouns of agency under the head of pronouns.

A suffix la occurs in anu a-mo-la, you are. It is perhaps a slip for ta.

The forms goe lākshi, we go; gāni lawni, you go; gumikāgā lawmi, they go, in the list, have not been taken from the same dialect as that represented by the Parable and the bulk of the list. Compare Bāhing.

Past time.—The base alone is also used as a past tense; thus, mo, they were, he lived; ang mo-nga. I was; jawaph bi, answer he gave, he answered.

The suffix ni, which is sometimes preceded by ti or di, is used in forms such as mu-ni, they made; lu-ti-ni, he said; se-mu-di-ni, he made him tend (pigs).

A common suffix is u, which is usually preceded by consonants such as t or d, ch, and n. Thus, $k\bar{a}n-nu$ nger-u, squandering finished, he wasted; lu-tu and lu-du, he said; yom-du, I have beaten; $\bar{a}-ki-du$, thou boughtest; mu-nu, he has made.

U is probably connected with the suffix yo in lam-thi-yo, I have walked.

In $m\bar{a}$ -ng-u, I have done, the suffix u is preceded by ng, which is probably a suffix of the first person singular.

Most of the forms mentioned above can be followed by the suffix m. They are then properly nouns of agency or relative participles, but can also be used with the function of ordinary verbs. Thus, go-m, he was; mo-m. thou wast, they were; $\bar{a}n-ni$ $\bar{a}-mo-ni-m$, you were; $\bar{a}-chu-m$, he said; li-chu-m, he became alive. In khu-chu-m thiyo, (I, thou, or he) went; yom-du-m thiyo, I had beaten, thiyo has been added. Thiyo probably means 'was,' and yom-du-m thiyo would then literally mean 'I was a beater.'

A suffix \bar{a} occurs in forms such as angku $mu-k-\bar{a}$, we were; $khu-ch-\bar{a}$, he went; $li-ch-\bar{a}$, he became alive; $chhukh\bar{a}$, it arose, etc.

Forms such as don-po, he was found, are properly participles.

The forms given under Nos. 185-190, 214-216 in the list belong to another dialect.

Future.—The suffix ta or tu is also used with a future meaning; thus, $ang\ lu$ -o- $nu\ \bar{a}$ -s-ta, I saying will-say; chhuk- $t\bar{a}$, it will be; $ang\ chhup$ -tu, I shall be; $\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} yom-tu, I shall beat.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, tu, put; bi, give; be- $ng\bar{a}$, give me.

A common suffix is ni; thus, mo-ni, sit; yum-i-ni, beat; $mo-ng\bar{a}-ni$, make me. It is sometimes preceded by another suffix chi; thus, pi-chi-ni, take; repma-chi-ni, stand; kap-mu-chi-ni, cause him to put on. Note lu-nu-ni, say.

Another suffix is \bar{a} , which is sometimes preceded by other suffixes such as ch, t, or d; thus, pi- \bar{a} , come; lam-thiy- \bar{a} , walk; micha, die; $khuch\bar{a}$, go; $l\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, draw; $pud\bar{a}$, bind; $send\bar{a}$, look.

The forms ending in ti in the sentence in-ki- \bar{a} ju-o-ka-ti tung-ki-ti moj muk-ti, us-by eat-should drink-should, merry make-should, let us eat, drink, and make merry, are perhaps future forms.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The most common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix nu; thus, lu-nu, to say; moj mu-nu, in order to make merry; $chhu\bar{a}$ -nu- $l\bar{a}i$, being for, to be. Compare the suffix nu mentioned under the head of past time.

Another verbal noun is formed by adding m or om; thus, muk-ti-m, to do; ho-m pachhi, after the coming; yom-om, to beat. In ho-lom- \bar{a} , by his arriving, because he came, it is preceded by an l which should perhaps be compared with la mentioned under the head of present.

The suffix m is also used to form relative and verbal participles; thus, $ang\ dok-ta-m$ $ansa-bh\bar{a}g$, I getting share, the share that I shall get; $mitchu-m\ gom$, dead was.

The verbal noun ending in nu is also used as a relative participle; thus, $po-\bar{a}$ ju-nu bhusa, pigs-by eating husks, the husks which the pigs ate.

A common relative participle is formed by adding pu, i.e. probably the suffix of the genitive, to a participle ending in k; thus, $mam\ sahar-bi\ mu-k-pu\ mam\ minu$, that townin living that man, that man who lived in that town; $sampati\ ju-k-pu\ tum\ \bar{a}-chu$, property eating this thy-son, this thy son who wasted thy property.

The various forms mentioned under the head of present, past, and future, above, are properly verbal nouns or participles, and are often used as such. Compare yom-ja-ta, beating; chhuk-thing-ta, being; khus-thing-ta, going; khuchū, gone.

Forms such as ho-yo, coming-also; ho-pā-chu-yo, arriving-also, can be used as conjunctive participles. The most common conjunctive participle is, however, formed by

adding the suffix $k\bar{a}$, ka, or k, which is identical with the ablative suffix, to the various verbal bases; thus, $b\bar{a}tule$ mu-ka, together making, gathering; $yom-du-k\bar{a}$, having beaten; $khu-chu-k\bar{a}$, going; kus-ta-k, going; phuka-k, arising; ngini-k, hearing; $hu-chi-ni-k\bar{a}$, bringing, and so forth.

A suffix sa is used in forms such as dok-sa, getting; mu-sa, remaining.

Note finally the isolated forms \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$, saying; $\bar{a}s$ -ta, saying; lu-o-nu, saying.

Causals are apparently formed by suffixing lai or mu; thus, jo-lai-mi, he is grazing, from jo, eat; se-mu-di-ni, to-tend-caused, from se, tend.

Negative particle.—The negative verb is formed by prefixing $m\bar{a}$ and suffixing na; thus, $m\bar{a}$ dok-tu-na, he did not get; $m\bar{a}$ be-nga-na, you did not give to me (nga); $m\bar{a}$ dira-na, I am not worthy. Note $m\bar{a}$ bin-in-na, he did not give.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying words precede the qualified ones.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 35.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RAI.

(NEPAL DARBAR.)

Sak-pu madhe kānchhā, sak-pu u-chu mo. 'pu-ā, Tik-pu min-po Two among younger, 'father-O, twohis-sons were. One man-of lu-tu. O-pu-ā be-ngā,' ānā o-pu ansa-bhāg angu dok-tam ang his-father said. His-father-by saying getting sharemegive,' \boldsymbol{I} mam kānchhā iharā Mam-po yo-lam pu-ā musa-khancha. chhuția ansa allThat-of after thatyounger son-by divisionmaking-gave. share khuchā. Ma-bi pardes moja batu-le-mu-ka tādo sampati went.There foreign-country in-debauchery together-making far property kānnu-ngeru. Kharcha um-po ansa-bhāg-bim sampati jharā musmo to-squander-finished. Expenditure property allhisshare-of living ngiru-m pachhi thau-bi ghala-pu siso chhukhā. \mathbf{mam} mu-nu Heplace-in bigfamine arose. after thatfinishing making del-bim tik janā minu kāi khuchukā huk-ho. Mam dukh going That country-of oneperson man withbecame. $\ddot{a}estitute$ minu-ā muk-pu mam um-po kheti-bi sahar-bi po Mam mo. living that man-by hisfield-in swine Thatcity-in stayed. mā-yo mā-bin-in-na. Mam Ās-ā-yo po-ā ju-nu se-mu-di-ni. Anyone-by anything not-gave. Thoseswine-by eaten to-graze-caused. dok-tu-nā. U-sāni u-mupu bhin-nu $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{\tilde{a}}$ hom pachhi bhusa-ā-yo His-sense husks-with-even to-fill notgot.his-belly coming after hit-po sebantite-hām-ā kebā suba dok-sa o-pu-po ju-nu ā-chum, how-many servants muchbread 'my-father-of to-eat getting Angu sukhā mista. \mathbf{Ang} kustak dok-ti-ni. o-pu phār-bi ven-nu-yo get.hunger die. arising my-father to-spare-even near pā, Isura ānu-bi ang-a pāp māngu: "ye angu ho-pā-chā, Godyou-to me-by sin father, did; Icoming, ā-chuye lu-nu mā-dira-na. Angu āp-po āp-po your-son say-to not-worthy. Meyour-Honour-of your-Honour of luo-nu-āsta, mo-ngā-ni," ānā phukhak mam-po sebante-hem u-pu make-me," saying-will-say,' saying risinghis servant-like his-father de-bi khuchā. Mam chu dherai yākāng mo-vo, u-pu-ā dok-kha-tu, That very was-even, his-father-by went. 8a10, near bhul-phu-chuka, tokchhi-bi hep-kha-tu-ka ngi-chum-ā chuk-mu-du u-go running-going, aching neck-on embracing kiss-made. his-mind

lu-du, ٠e Chu-ā u-pu o-pu, Isura ā-mukhiāji-bi pāp · 0 his-father said. my-father, Son-by Godyour-face-in sinā-chu lu-nu mā-dira-na.' māngu; angu Meyo pu-ā chākara-hām I not-worthy.' thy-son to-say Butdid; father-by servants ʻjāti huchi-ni-kā tam lu-ti-ni, gu kap-mu-chi-ni; khur-bi chhukurim ' good clothbringing him to-put-on-cause; said. hand-on ring bhig-be-ni, u-phāli-bi juttā be-ni. Lau, "in-ki-ā yo ju-o-ka-ti to-put-on-give, his-feet-on shoes alsogive. Well, " us-bu shall-eat muk-ti," lu-nu-ni; mitchum o-chu tung-ki-ti moj gom, lichā: shall-make," shall-drink merry say; my-son dead was, lived: don-po.' ānā mam-hām-ā chāmum gom, teni ananda mu-ni. was-found,' thus saying them-by lostwas. merry made.

dusapi chu kheti-bi mom-gom. Ho-vo kim Mam deī-bi hopā-chu-vo olderfield-in That son was. Coming housenear arriving hānchhomum sora nginik, tik bājā janā chākara bra-tu-ka. 'mā-wa?' musicdancing sound hearing, oneperson servant calling, 'what-is?' siku-bi. 'Āp-po ānā ā-wā holom-ā ã-pu-ā ' Your-Honour-of asked.your-brother arriving-for saying your-father-by tik-pu bhoj chākara-ā mu-nu,' me lu-du-vo. mom-pu u-chili bru-chu-ka one feast made, servant-by said-also, him-of his-anger arising kim-ghobu $m\bar{a}$ unga-na. Mam-po pu pākhā lana-chuk mam binti house-into notwent. Hisfather outsidecoming himentreaty mu-tu. Mam-ā u-pu jawāph-bi, 'sendā, teni barkha-bi ā-tahal answer-gave, made. Him-by his-father ·lo, theseyears-in your-service mu-ngatā. Hiyo-yo ã-bachan mā-gap-tu-na. Mai-vo angu o-ngasi-ham doing-am. Ever-even thy-word not-transgressed. StillT my-friends kāī moj mu-nu tik-pu bhedā-po u-chu $m\bar{a}$ be-nga-na. with merry to-make onesheep-of its-young-one notgavest-to-me. Besyā-ham-kāi musa sampati juk-pu tum ā-chu holom-ã bhoj $Harlots ext{-}with$ living property eating thisthy-son coming-on feast ã-mu.' Meyo u-pu-ā ludu, 'ye chu, ānu sadhai kāī ang thou-madest.' Buthis-father-by · 0 said, 80h, you always with ā-molā. O-po $m\bar{a}$ go tum jharā āp-pong. Ing-ki-ā moja musa Me-of what you-are. isthisallyours. Us-by merriment making harkha-bhoj muktim khanohe chhuk-ta. Māhāk? āsta, tam ā-wa joy-feast to-make proper will-be. saying, Why? this your-brother mitchum lichum; chāmum gom, gom, don-po.' deadwas, lived; lost was-found.' was,

VĀYU.

According to Hodgson the Vāyus, who are vulgarly called Hāyus, inhabit the slopes of the central region of the Himalaya in Nepal. They are found in small villages scattered on both sides of the river Kosi, from the great valley of Nepal proper to that point where the Kosi turns southwards to issue into the plains. Their number in Nepal cannot be ascertained, but is said to be small and not to exceed a few thousands. At the last Census of 1901 some few speakers of Vāyu were returned from districts outside Nepal, viz.:

Assam, Lakhimpur .		•						•	90
Bengal Presidency. Darjeeling	٠			•	•			•	24
						To	TAL	•	114

The Vayus of Lakhimpur were probably either serving in our Indian Army, or were employed on tea-gardens.

Hodgson describes the Vayus as being in an exceedingly depressed condition, probably passing to gradual extinction. There does not appear to be any close connexion between the different villages. Each village has a headman, whom they call majhua. This name recalls the word manjhi, which is used in the same way among the Santals.

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Hodgson's Essays contain a full grammatical analysis of Vāyu with a good specimen of the language. The remarks which follow are entirely based on Hodgson's work, to which the student is referred for more detailed information. I have also reproduced Hodgson's specimen with the addition of an interlinear translation.

Vāyu is a typical language of the complex pronominalized class, though the conjugational system is less complicated than in the case of Bāhing.

Pronunciation.—The consonant kh has a peculiar sound. Hodgson describes it as 'verging upon a vague th or hard h, or Sanskrit $k\underline{sh}$.' Thus, khis-to, rub. According to the same authority ' \underline{kh} is hard Arabic, without the least vagueness, as in \underline{khwas} -to, to tighten.'

E and i are commonly interchanged; thus, ning-la and neng-la, congeal. O and u are said to be interchangeable in the same way.

Old final consonants are often slurred, and the word is then pronounced in the abrupt tone; thus, top-ta, struck, but to'-vi, striking; $m\bar{e}k'$, eye; cho'-mi, small. The abrupt tone has been indicated by means of the sign 'after the vowel or the consonant.

Some words are pronounced in what Hodgson calls the pausing tone; thus, $\bar{\imath}$, this; $m\bar{\imath}$, that; $t\bar{o}$ - $v\bar{\imath}$, placing, compare to'- $v\bar{\imath}$, striking.

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Concurrent consonants are changed in various ways. Thus k or k' often becomes ng before m and n, as in thing-ne, shut ye; $d\bar{a}ng$ -ne-m and dak-ne-m, you desired; from thik, shut; dak', desire, respectively. K moreover often becomes p after labials and t after dentals; thus phi-ki- $k\bar{o}ng$ -mi, we came; $d\bar{a}m$ -pi- $k\bar{o}ng$ -mi, we were full; ho-ti- $k\bar{o}ng$ -mi, we talked, from $ph\bar{i}$, come; dam, be full; hot', talk, respectively. There are, however, many exceptions, at least in the case of dentals preceding the k, when the change only takes place if the dental is dropped. Compare hot'-kok-mi, we talk. In dam-pop-mi, we are full, the suffix kok has been changed to pop under the influence of the preceding m.

A final t is often changed to s; thus, si-s-chyang, an instrument to kill with; si-s-chhok-mi, we two kill him; si-s-to, kill him; si-s-sung, kill me, etc., from the base sit, kill. Before m a t is apparently sometimes changed to n; thus, hon-mi, talked, from hot, talk. Similarly p becomes m before n; thus tom-ne, strike ye, from the base top, to strike.

Ng apparently becomes m after labials, and, sometimes, n after t; thus dam-mu-m, I am full, si-n-mi, I kill him, from dam, to be full; sit, to kill, respectively. In these instances mu and n, respectively, are derived from the pronominal suffix ngo, ng.

Such changes play a great rôle in the conjugation of verbs.

Suffixes and prefixes.—Several suffixes and prefixes are used in the formation of words. The prefixes cannot, in most cases, be analysed. The prefix \bar{u} in \bar{u} - $p\bar{u}$, father; \bar{u} - $m\bar{\iota}$, mother, is originally a demonstrative pronoun. It has, however, become an inseparable part of the word. The meaning of many other prefixes cannot now be ascertained; thus, *cho-lo*, Tibetan *zla-ba*, moon; *b-li-(-ning)*, Tibetan *bzhi*, four, etc.

A common suffix is $l\bar{u}ng$, which denotes place; thus, im- $l\bar{u}ng$. sleeping room, from im, to sleep. The suffix sing is similarly added to verbal bases in order to form compounds with the meaning of time for an action; thus, im-sing, bed time.

The suffix *chyāng* denotes the instrument; thus, *top-chyāng*, a beating instrument, a hammer; *ruk-chyāng*, a ploughing instrument, a plough.

Nouns of agency are formed by adding the suffix vi; thus, to'-vi, a hammer; $p\bar{o}$ -vi, a maker; cheli-tun-vi, a goatherd. The suffix wo is sometimes used in a similar way; thus, daksa-wo, a covetous man; liwo-wo, a bow-man, an archer. A corresponding feminine is formed by adding the suffix mi; thus, daksa-mi, a covetous woman. The same suffix is also used to form neuter nouns; thus, heldung-mi, the yellow thing, gold; khak-chhing-mi, the black thing, iron; $d\bar{a}w\bar{a}ng$ -mi, the white thing, silver. It is connected with the suffix mu which is used in order to form adjectives and genitives, especially before neuter nouns; thus, sing-mu, wooden; $j\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ -mu, right; $m\bar{a}dum$ -mu, central, etc. Mi and mu are connected with the demonstrative pronoun mi, that, and the verb substantive mi, m, which is used as an assertive particle after verbs.

A suffix sa occurs in words such as ram-sa, fear; jung-sa, fever; suk'-sa, hunger; dak-sa, wish; ti-dak-sa, water-wish, thirst, etc. It apparently forms abstract nouns from verbal bases.

Nouns.—There is no grammatical gender. The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes such as wo and cho, male; mi, female. Thus, kiki, grandfather; pipi, grandmother: $l\tilde{o}cho$ (or perhaps $l\tilde{o}\tilde{n}cho$), man; mescho, woman: $t\tilde{a}$ -wo, boy; $t\tilde{a}$ -mi, girl: bang-cho, a young man; bang-mi, a young woman:

bing-cho, a handsome man; bing-mi, a handsome woman. Mes-cho, woman, shows that cho cannot be a simple male suffix, and the male and female suffixes are sometimes added after cho; thus, bang-cho-wo, a mature man; bang-cho-mi, a mature woman.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. Number is not separately indicated if it can be inferred from the context. In other cases numerals or the suffix $kh\bar{a}ta$, which probably means 'many,' are added; thus, $n\bar{a}yung\ got$,' two hands; $l\tilde{o}cho-kh\bar{a}ta$, men.

Case.—The cases of the subject and the object are not indicated by means of any suffix. They are sufficiently marked in the verb. The subject of transitive verbs is, however, put in the case of the agent or the instrumental in such forms as are common to the active and the passive. Compare the remarks under the head of verbs, below.

The genitive is commonly expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun without adding any suffix; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho\ got$, the man's hand; $chh\bar{a}ju\ m\bar{a}dum$ - $b\bar{e}$, hill middle-in, in the mid-ascent of the hill. If there is no qualified noun the suffix mu or m is added; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho$ -mu, the man's. The same is also sometimes the case before a qualified noun; thus mulung- $mu\ m\bar{a}dum$ - $b\bar{e}$, in the middle of the village. The suffix m is very commonly added after suffixes of number and in some pronouns; thus, $l\tilde{o}cho\ nak$ -pu-m of two men; $l\tilde{o}cho\ kh\bar{a}ta$ -m, men's.

The suffix of the ablative is *khen*, that of the instrumental $h\bar{a}$, and those of the locative $b\bar{e}$, $h\bar{e}$, and \bar{e} ; thus, sing-khen, from the wood; $l\bar{o}cho$ - $h\bar{a}$, by a man; $l\bar{o}cho$ - $b\bar{e}$, in a man; wan- $h\bar{e}$, in the top; kem- \bar{e} , in the house.

Other relations are indicated by adding postpositions such as nung, with; bong, up to, so far as; rek, towards, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Most words used as adjectives are formed from verbal bases, and they are also used as participles; thus, met'-vi, dying; me'-ta, dead; $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}ng$, eatable, wholesome, etc. When adjectives are used as nouns, they are often qualified by suffixes denoting the gender; thus, suksa-wo, the hungry man; suksa-mi, the hungry woman. The suffix mu is similarly used to denote irrational beings; thus, noh'-ka-mu, the good one.

Comparison is effected by putting the compared noun in the ablative; thus, wathi-m khen cho'-mi, him from small, smaller than he; inung-khāta khen cho'-mi, these from small, smallest among these; sabim khen khimta, all from cold, coldest.

Numerals. The first four numerals have separate forms for the masculine, the feminine, and the irrational gender. Compare the table which follows:—

		Masculine.	Feminine.	Irrational.
One		kom-pu, kwong-pu	kwo-mi, kwong-mi	ko-lu
Two .		$n \bar{\iota} k$ -pu	nīng-mi	nā•yung
Three		chhui-pu	chhung-mi	chhu-yung
Four .		blik-p u	blig-mi	bli-ning

There are further separate forms for the numerals 'five' and 'six'; thus, \bar{u} -ning, five; chhu-ning, six. Chhu-ning seems to be a compound and to mean 'three times two.' The final ning is another form of $n\bar{a}yung$, two. Uning, five, probably has a similar origin.

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The numerals above four are usually counted in hands, feet and scores; thus, kolu got' khulup, one hand entire, five; nāyung got' khulup, two hands entire, ten; nāyung got' khulup-hā kolu got' khulup, two hands entire with one hand entire, fifteen; le got' khulup, feet hands all, twenty; cholok or kolu cholok, one score, twenty; bli-ning cholok, four score, eighty; ūning cholok or kolu got' cholok, five score, hundred.

Pronouns.—Pronouns are in most respects inflected like nouns. There are however separate genitive bases, which are also used before the suffixes khen of the ablative and $b\bar{e}$ of the locative, as also before postpositions such as nung, with. The dual is often indicated by adding the numeral $n\bar{a}k$ -pu, two; thus, $g\bar{o}$ $n\bar{a}k$ -pu, we two. There are, however, besides, separate dual suffixes in the two first persons, viz.: chi in the first and chhe, chhi, in the second. Similarly we find a plural suffix ki in the genitive of the first person and ne, ni in the second person. Compare Rāi i-chi, I and thou; ō-chū, I and he; ye-chi, you two; in-ki, I and you; ang-ku, I and they; an-ni, you.

There are, moreover, two sets of forms in the dual and plural of the first person, not however in the nominative, but only in the genitive. Compare the table which follows:—

		First person.	Second person.	Third person.
Sing.	Nom	$gar{o}$	gōn	wathi; mī; ī
	Instr	g^{a} - $har{a}$	gōn-hā	wathi-hā; mī-hī; ī-hū
	Gen	ang	ung	ā, wāthi-m, mī-nung, ī-nung
	Abl	ang-khen	ung-khen	wathi-m khen; mī-nung-khen; ī-nung khen
Dual	Nom	$g\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}kpu$	gōn-chhe	wathi nāk-pu; mī-nāk-pu; ī-nāk-pu
	Gen	ang-chi (my and his', ung-chi (my and thy)	ung-chhi	wathi-m nāk-pu-m; mī-nāk-pu-m; ī-nāk-pu-m
	Instr	gō-nākpu-hā, g*-hā nāk-pu-hā	gōn-chhe-hā	wathi nāk-pu-hā, etc.
Plur.	Nom	gō khāta	gōne	wathi khūta ; mī-khūta ; ī-khūta
	Gen	ang-ki (my and their), ung-ki (my and your)	un-ni	wathi·m khāta·m, mī-nung khāta·m, ī-nung khāta·m
	Instr	$g\bar{o}kh\bar{a}ta$ - $h\bar{a}$, g^a - $h\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{a}ta$ - $h\bar{a}$	gōne-hā	wathi khūta hū, etc.

The pronouns of the third person are also used as demonstrative pronouns; thus, \tilde{i} , this; mī and wathi, that.

The numeral $n\bar{a}k$ -pu, two, is replaced by $n\bar{a}ng$ -mi and $n\bar{a}yung$ if the pronouns refer to women or irrational beings, respectively.

Interrogative pronouns are $s\bar{u}$ and $s\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, who? mische, what? hānung, which? An interrogative pronoun is sometimes used as a kind of relative; thus, hānung got-hā to'pung-mi mi no-mi, which hand-by struck-him-I that pains me, the hand with which I

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struck him pains me. Usually, however, relative participles are used instead; thus, jo-vi singtong thā thik-to, eating man not hinder, don't hinder the man who eats.

Verbs.—The verb is the most interesting feature in Vāyu grammar. It is often a mere noun without different forms to denote the person of the subject. In such cases the subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent. On the other hand, there is a long series of forms in which the person of the subject and the object are indicated by means of pronominal affixes inserted in the verb. We can therefore distinguish two different principles prevailing in Vāyu conjugation. A comparison of the forms usual in Bāhing and other dialects, in which pronominal suffixes are used to a much greater extent than in the case of Vāyu, points to the conclusion that an older system of indicating the subject and object by means of pronominal suffixes is on its way towards being superseded by the much simpler Tibeto-Burman principle, according to which the verb is a kind of noun incapable of inflexion in person and number.

The number of tenses is limited to two, a present, which is also used as a future, and a past, and even these two are often identical in form. In narrative sentences, a suffix mi or m must be added to all verbal tenses in order to show that the action really takes place; thus the base $ph\bar{i}$ means 'to come,' and $wathi\ ph\bar{i}$ ki $m\bar{a}$ means he comes or not, does he come? If we want to indicate that he really comes, mi must be added; thus, $wathi\ ph\bar{i}$ -mi, he comes.

Subject.—The person of the subject is in many forms indicated by means of pronominal infixes which are inserted between the base and the copula mi, m. The details are as follows.

The affix of the first person singular is ngo or ng; compare Rāi nga, Limbu ng, etc.; thus, $ph\bar{\imath}-ngo-mi$, I go; $t\bar{a}-ng-mi$, I place. After labials ng is replaced by m; thus, jyop'-mu-m, I am tired; hom-mu-m, I am tasted. In to'mi, I strike, the m seems to represent both the pronominal suffix and the copula.

In si-n-mi, I kill him; si-n-chhe-m, I kill them two; si-n-me-m, I kill them, the pronominal infix ng has apparently been contracted into one sound with the suffix indicating the object. Similarly the suffix ng is dropped or contracted before the suffix no, nu, which denotes an object of the second person; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -nu-m, I give thee; $h\bar{a}$ -no-ne-m, I give you.

A subject of the second person singular is not usually indicated by means of a pronominal infix. In the base no, to be, however, the second person singular is no-nu-m, art. The affix nu in this form is identical with the affix no, nu in forms such as $h\bar{a}-nu-m$, I give thee; top-nu-m, I strike thee. They can just as well be translated 'thou art given by me,' 'thou art struck by me.' The suffix no, nu is identical with Kanāwarī n, Thāmī $n\bar{a}$, etc.

A subject of the third person singular is not indicated by means of any affix.

The first person dual is indicated by adding the affixes *chhok*, past *chhong*, if the person addressed is excluded, and *chhik*, past *chhing* if he is included; thus, *phī-chhok-mi*, *phī-chhik-mi*, we go; *phī-chhong-mi*, *phī-chhing-mi*, we went.

The affix *chhik* is also used to denote the second and third persons dual in the present tense of intransitive verbs; thus, *phī-chhik-mi*, you two, or, they two, come; *sis-chhik-mi, you two, or, they two are killed. Forms such as sis-chhik-mi are also used as actives. In such cases, however, the subject is separately marked by being put in

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the case of the agent. That the affix chhik does not really denote an active subject of the second and third persons is shown by the fact that it is replaced by chhe whenever a second affix indicating the object is added; thus, sit-ngo-chhe-m, you two, or, they two, kill me. The affix chhe is also used with intransitive verbs in the past tense; thus, phi-chhe-m, you two, or, they two, went.

In the first person plural the affixes kok, past ki-kong, are added if the person addressed is not included; thus, hā-ti-kok-mi, we give him; phī-ki-kong-mi, we went.

Kok is changed to pop after labials; thus, dam-pop-mi, we are lost. Similarly kikõng becomes pi-kõng after labials, and ti-kõng after dentals; thus, dam-pi-kõng-mi, we were lost; ho-ti-kong-mi, we talked, from hot', talk. Ti-kong is also used in such transitive verbs as indicate the object by means of a suffix beginning with t; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -ti- $k\bar{o}ng$ -mi, we gave him; but $h\bar{a}$ -ki- $k\bar{o}ng$ -mi, we were given. The corresponding reflexive form is chi-kong; thus, im-chi-kong-mi, we sleep.

If the person addressed is included the affixes are ke (after labials pe), past ki-keng (with the same parallel forms as in the case of ki- $k\bar{o}ng$); thus, $ph\bar{\imath}$ -ke-m, we came; im-chi-keng-mi, we slept.

The affixes of the second and third persons plural are ne, me, respectively; thus, phī-ne-m, you come, you came; phī-me-m, they come, they came.

Object.—Reference has occasionally been made to affixes denoting the object in addition to those indicating the subject. The use of two affixes, one denoting the subject and another denoting the object, in one and the same form is not common. It is restricted to cases where the subject is in the plural and the object in the singular,

An object of the first person singular is indicated by means of the same infix as a subject of the same person; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -su-ng, give me; $th\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ -ngo, don't give me. Such forms can of course also be considered as passives, and the affix as the affix of the subject. The affix ng, ngo can be followed by the affixes chhe, ne, and me, denoting an agent of the second or third person dual, the second person plural, and the third person plural, respectively; thus, to'-mo-chhe-m, you two (or they two) strike me; hā-ngo-ne-m, you give me; hā-ngo-me-m, they give me; top-su-ng-me-m, they struck me, etc. In forms such as gō gōn-hā mut-ping-ku-m, I thee-by to-stay gave, you made me stay, there is no affix to denote that the object is of the first person. The form ping-ku-m usually If it is correctly used, the passage is an instance of Tibeto-Burman means 'gave him.' principles supplanting the old conjugation of the dialect.

The first person dual and plural are only indicated in the imperative; the affixes are the same as in the case of the subject; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -chong, give us two, $h\bar{a}$ -ki-kōng, give us; thā hā-chhok, don't give us two; thā hā-kōk, don't give us. Forms such as hā-kokmi, he gives us, are passive and should properly be translated 'we are given,' etc.

An object of the second person is only indicated with a subject of the first person singular. The affixes are no (nu), dual no-chhe, plural no-ne. It has already been remarked that there is no affix to denote the subject. Thus, top-nu-m, I strike thee; top-no-chhe-m, I strike you two; top-no-ne-m, I strike you. It is possible that the affix ng of the first person singular has been fused into one sound with the following n. If that is not the case, the restriction of the use of such forms to those cases in which the subject is of the first person singular, can only be a secondary development. A form VOL. III, PART I.

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such as top-nu-m, I strike thee, would then be passive and should properly be translated 'thou art struck.' Such verbs as distinguish the active from the passive by using different vowels in the base, add the object affixes of the second person to the passive form; thus, to-no-ne-m, I place you; but tā-ng-me-m, I place them.

An object of the third person singular is usually indicated by adding an affix to the base. In many cases there are different affixes to denote the direct and the indirect objects, ko being used for the direct and to for the indirect one; thus, yeng-ko, see him; yeng-to, see for him: $j\bar{a}-ko$, eat it; $j\bar{a}-to$, eat for him: $kh\bar{u}-ko$, steal it; $kh\bar{u}-to$, steal for him: po'-po, lick it; pop-to, lick it for him. The last instance shows that k is changed to p in the usual way after labials.

In many cases the affix to is used for the direct as well as for the indirect object; thus, chek-to, hate him, and, for him; sis-to, kill him, and, for him, etc.

If the subject is of the first person singular the affix ng, ngo, is inserted between ko, to and the copula; thus, hā-tu-ng-mi, I give to him, I gave to him; sis-tu-ng-mi, I killed him; tā-ku-ng-mi, I placed him. Some verbs omit the affix of the object in the present. This is the case with such verbs as have different vowels in the active and the passive; thus, tā-ng-mi, I place him; compare to-ngo-m, I am placed. Verbs ending in t, which change this t to s before the affix t, do not appear to have any mark referring to the object in the first person singular of the present; thus, si-n-mi, I kill him. The n inserted before mi in this form is probably derived from the final t of the base and the pronominal affix ng of the first person singular. Similarly transitive verbs ending in p drop the affix of the object in the same forms; thus, to'-mi, I hit him. It is possible that to'-mi is simply a passive form 'he is hit.' If not, the m in mi must be derived from a double m, one the initial consonant of the verb substantive, the other the regular form of the affix of the first person singular after labials, the base of the verb being top. This latter explanation is probably the right one, two ms being used if the object is of the third person dual or plural. In such cases the affixes chhe, me, respectively, are inserted between the affix of the subject and the verb substantive; thus, to-m-chhe-m, I strike them two; to-m-me-m, I strike them; si-n-chhe-m, I kill them two; si-n-me-m, 1 kill them; hā-tu-ng-chhe-m, I give them two; hā-tu-ng-me-m, I give them.

It has already been remarked that there are no pronominal affixes to denote a subject of the second and third persons singular. Such forms are distinguished by using the suffix of the agent after the subject. If the subject as well as the object is of the third person singular, such forms can be considered as actives as well as passives. In the second person with an object of the third person singular, the form is always identical with that of the third person. The affix of the object is always added in the past; thus, sis-tu-m, thou killedest him, he killed him; to'-pu-m, struckest, struck, him. In the present, on the other hand, the passive forms are commonly used; thus, to'-mi, thou strikest him, he strikes him, he is struck; $h\bar{a}-tu-m$, givest him, gives him, he is given. The affix of the object is added if it is to and the verb does not end in a t; thus, thik-tu-m, he shuts it, etc.; bong-tu-m, pleasest him, pleases him, is pleased, and so on.

If the subject is in the dual or the plural, an object of the third person singular is not separately marked. If the subject is of the third person the affix to is added as above, in the active as well as in the passive; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -to-chhe-m, they two give, or, are

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given. In the past tense the affixes to, ko, etc., are always added; thus, sis-to-chhe-m, they two killed him; tā-ko-me-m, they put him, etc.

Voice.—There are three voices, the active, the passive, and the middle. The active and passive voices are distinguished by the use of pronominal affixes indicating the object in the case of the former, which are dropped in the latter. Intransitive verbs do not use affixes of the object. Their form therefore agrees with the passive of transitives.

It has already been remarked that the active and passive voices are often confounded, many forms being used with an active as well as with a passive meaning. In such cases the common Tibeto-Burman principle of distinguishing the subject and the object, not in the verb, but by means of additions to the noun, is resorted to, the subject of transitive verbs being put in the case of the agent; thus, gon-hā wathi yeng-ku-m, theeby he was-seen. The meaning is, however, sometimes left to be inferred from the context, as is also the case in other Tibeto-Burman languages; thus, Khāsa-khāta Hāyu it-ke-m, Khas Hāyu called-are-we, we are called Hāyu by the Khas.

Three verbs, $t\bar{a}$, to place; $j\bar{a}$, to eat; and $p\bar{a}$, to do, change their \bar{a} to o in most passive forms. Other verbs distinguish the two voices only by means of pronominal affixes. Those forms which differ in the active and the passive are the first person singular, the second person singular of the past, and the first person plural. In the second and third persons dual and plural an object of the first person singular is indicated by inserting the pronominal affix ngo; see above under the head of object. Other forms do not differ for the active and the passive; thus, sis-tu-m means 'he killed' and 'he was killed'; sis-chhik-mi, they two kill, or, are killed. It will be seen that the form sis-tu-m contains the affix of the object tu, and is, consequently, an active form. Sis-chhik-mi, on the other hand, has a passive form.

The middle voice is formed from transitive, and also from some intransitive, verbs by inserting *che*, dual na, plural chi, between the base and the personal affixes denoting the subject. Transitive bases ending in a vowel nasalize it before the infixes *che* and *chi*; thus, $p\bar{a}$ -ng-mi, I do it; $p\bar{a}$ -chu-ng-mi, I do it for myself.

Tense.—It has already been remarked that the dialect does not possess more than two finite tenses, the present and the past, and that the difference between the two is not great. The conjugational tables in Hodgson's Vāyu grammar are probably incomplete, and the distribution of the various forms on the present and the past sometimes makes the impression of being artificial.

It has already been remarked that the present and past tenses are distinguished by using different affixes to denote the subject in the dual and in the first person plural. The affix of the second person plural is ne in the present as well as in the past. A preceding sound is, however, usually changed to a nasal in the past; thus, dak-ne-m, you wish; dak-ne-m or $d\bar{a}ng$ -ne-m, you wished; jyop-ne-m, you are tired; $jy\bar{o}m$ -ne-m, you were tired; hot-ne-m, you talk; $h\bar{o}$ -ne-m, you talked. It will be seen that a preceding vowel is, in such cases, lengthened, and that n is dropped before n; compare also sit-ne-m, you kill; $s\bar{e}$ -ne-m, you killed, with change of the long $\bar{\imath}$ to \bar{e} . The lengthening is accordingly due to a kind of contraction between the dropped consonant and the following n, and it should be noted that vowels are as a rule lengthened as a kind of compensation when a consonant is dropped; thus, $d\bar{a}$ -mi, from dam-mi, he is full.

The termination of the second and third persons singular is the simple copula mi or m, in the present as well as in the past; thus, $ph\bar{\imath}-mi$, comest, comes, camest, came. A preceding sound is usually treated in the same way as before ne in the past; thus, dak-mi, desires; $d\bar{a}ng-mi$, desired, etc. To judge from Hodgson's grammar the past is often also distinguished from the present by inserting an affix denoting the object; thus, sit-mi, thou killest; sis-tu-m, thou killedest. Similarly Hodgson also gives sis-chhik-mi, they two kill, but sis-to-chhe-m, they two killed. This distinction, however, seems to be artificial, the forms containing an affix of the object being properly active, the rest passive forms. Forms such as $h\bar{a}-tu-m$, he gives, he gave, show that the affix of the object is also used in the present.

There remains the first person singular. The difference established between the present and the past in Hodgson's grammar is apparently sometimes artificial; thus, si-n-mi, I kill (him); sis-tu-ng-mi, I killed him, in which case the affix of the object is only added in the past. Forms such as hā-tu-ng-mi, I give, or gave, him, show that the use or non-use of the object affix does not mark a difference of time. There is apparently only one affix of the first person which is really a tense affix of the past, viz., the affix su-ng, which is used in intransitive and passive verb; thus, hā-ngo-m, I am given; hā-su-ng-mi, I was given. In transitive bases ending in nasals the first person singular of the present ends in su-ng-mi, as does also the past tense of the passive; thus, ping-su-ng-mi, I give, I was given.

The table which follows registers the present and past tenses of the bases $ph\bar{s}$, to come; dak', to desire; dam, to be full; and hot, to talk.

		Prosent.	Past.	Prosont.	Past.	Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.
Sing.		phi-ngo- m	phī-sung-mi	dak-nyo- m	dak-sung-mi	dā-mu-m	аст-санд-ті	hot'-ngo-m	ho-sung-mi
		pāt-mi	phi-mi	dak-mi	dāng-mi	dā-mi	dā-mi	hot'-mi	hōn-mi
		jhī-mi	phī-mi	dak-mi	dõng-mi	$dar{a}$ - mi	dā-mi		hõn-mi
-	1 evel.	phē-chhok-mi	p ¹ 1.chlong-mi	dak-chłok-mi	dak-chhong-mi	dam-chhok-mi	dam-chhong-mi	hos-chhok-mi	hos-chhong-mi
† 1 †	1 incl.	phī-chlik-mi	phī-c ^h hing-mi	dak-chhik-mi	dak-chhing mi	dam-chlik-mi	dam-chhing-mi	h os chhik-mi	hos-chling mi
		phī-chlik-mi	phē-chhe-m	dak-chhik-mi	dak-chhc-m	dam-chhih•mi	dam-chhe-m	hos-chlik-mi	hos-chhe-m
1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	,	phī-chhik-mi	phi-chhe-m	dak-chlik-mi	dak-chhe-m	dam-chhik-mi	dam-chhe-w	hos-chhik-mi	hos-chhe-m
Plur.	1 exol.	phī-kok-mi	phī-ki-kōng-mi	dak-kok-mi	dak'-ki-kōng-mi	dām-pop-mi	dām-pi-kong-mi	hot -kok-mi	ko-ti-kōng-mi
	l incl.	phi-ke-na	phī-ki-keng-mi	dak-ke-m	dak'-ki-keng-mi	(√am·pe-m	dām-pi-keng-mi	hot'-kc-m	ho-ti-keng-mi
		phī-ne-m	บนิจานจาน	વેલકે મહ ્યા	લ માનુગાના મુખ	аст-не-т	dam-ne-m	hot'ne- m	hō-nc- m
	•	phī-me-m	phī-me-m	dak-me-m	dak me-m	dā-me-m	લહ-મહ-મ	kot'-me.m	kõn-me-m

It has already been noted that the object is indicated in various ways in transitive verbs. The details will be found in Hodgson's grammar. In this place we shall only give the present and past tenses of the active and the passive, and the middle voice of the base *ping*, to send, to give. In the middle voice there is no difference between the present and the past except in the dual and the first person plural.

		A	CTIVE.	PA	ASSIVE.	- Middle Present.
		Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	- Middle Present.
Sing.	1	ping-sung-mi	ping-kung-mi	ping-ngo-m	ping-sung-mi	ping-chung-mi
	2		ping-ku-m	ping-mi	ping-mi	ping-che-m
	3		ping-ku-m	ping-mi	1	ping-che-m
Dual	1 excl			ping-chhok-mi	ping-chhong-mi	ping-na-chhok-m
	1 incl.			ping-chhik-mi	ping-chhing-mi	ping-na-chhik-ma
	2			ping-chhik-mi	ping-chhe-m	ping-na-chhik-m
	3		ping-ko-chhe-m	ping-chhik-mi		ping-na-c h hik-ma
Plur.	1 excl			ping-kok-mi	ping-ki-kong-mi	ping-chi-kok-mi
	1 incl.			ping-ke-m	ping-ki-keng-mi	ping-chi-ke-m
	2			ping-ne-m	ping-ne-m	ping-chi-ne-m
	3		ping-ko-me-m	ping-me-m		ping-chi-me-m

The missing forms of the active must be supplied from the passive, and vice versá. The past tense of the middle agrees with the present in all forms outside the dual and the first person plural which are as follows; dual 1 excl. ping-na-chhong-mi; 1 incl. ping-na-chhing-mi; 2. ping-na-chhe-m; 3. ping-na-chhe-m; plur. 1 excl. ping-chi-kong-mi, 1 incl. ping-chi-keng-mi.

Other forms are ping-nu-m, I send, or sent, thee; ping-no-chhe-m, I send, or sent, you two; ping-no-ne-m, I send, or sent, you; ping-sung-chhe-m, I send them two; ping-sung-me-m, I send them; ping-ku-ng-chhe-m, I sent them two; ping-ku-ng-me-m, I sent them; ping-ngo-chhem, you two, or they two, send me; ping-sung-chhe-m, you two, or

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they two, sent me; ping-ngo-ne-m, you send me; ping-ngo-me-m, they send me; ping-sung-ne-m, you sent me; ping-sung-me-m, they sent me, etc.

Similarly are formed the present and past tenses of most transitive verbs.

It has already been remarked that the verbs $j\bar{a}$, eat; $t\bar{a}$, put; and $p\bar{a}$, do, change their \bar{a} to o in the passive. Compare the table which follows:—

				ACTIVE.	Passive.		
			Present.	Past.	Present.	Past.	
Sing.	1 .		tā-ng-mi	tā-ku-ng-mi	to-ngo-m	to-sung-mi	
	2 .		1	tā-ku-m	to-mi	to-mi	
	3 .	•		tā-ku-m	to-mi		
Dual	1 excl.	•	tā-chhok-mi	tā-chhong-mi	to-chhok-mi	to-chhong-mi	
1	1 incl.		tā-chhik-mi	tā-chhing-mi	to-chhik-mi	to-chhing-mi	
	2 .	•		tā-chhe-m	to-chhik-mi	to-chhe-m	
	3 .			tā-ko-chhe-m	to-chhik-mi		
Plur.	1 excl.	•	tā-kok-mi	tā-ki-kōng-mi	to-kok-mi	to-ki-kōng-mi	
	1 incl.		tā-ke-m	tā-ki-keng-mi	to-ke-m	to-ki-keng mi	
	2 .	•		tā-ne-m	to-ne-m	to-ne-m	
	3 .	•		tā-ko-me-m	to-me-m	,	

The base $n\bar{o}$, to be, is inflected like $ph\bar{i}$, to come. The second person singular is, however, $n\bar{o}$ -nu-m, art; and the third person $n\bar{o}$ -mi or $n\bar{o}$ -m, is.

The base $l\bar{a}$, to go, has the form $l\bar{a}'la$ in the second and third persons singular; thus, $l\bar{a}$ -ngo-m, I go; $l\bar{a}'$ -sung-mi, I went; $l\bar{a}'la$ -m, goest, goes, wentest, went.

Imperative.—The imperative is not a finite tense denoting that something takes place. It is accordingly not followed by the copula mi or m. In other respects it is identical with the past; thus, $ph\bar{\imath}$, come; $ph\bar{\imath}$ -chhe, come you two; $ph\bar{\imath}$ -ne, come ye; im-che, sleep; im- $n\bar{\alpha}$ -chhe, sleep you two; im-chi-ne, sleep ye; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -to, give him; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -to-chhe, give to them two; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -chhe, give you two; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -sung, give me; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -chhong, give us two; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -ki-kong, give us; $h\bar{\alpha}$ -sung-chhe, give me you two, and so forth.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing $th\bar{a}$ to the present of transitives and to the past of intransitives; thus, $th\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{i}$ -chhe, don't come you two; $th\bar{a}$ $h\bar{o}$ -ne, don't talk; $th\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ -chhok, don't give to us two, etc. There are, however, many exceptions to this latter rule; thus, $th\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ -sung-ne, do not ye give to me.

The suffix mi, m is not only omitted in the imperative, but also in other forms which do not state that an action really takes place; thus, phi-ngo-nam, come-I-if, if vol. III, PART I.

I come; $ph\bar{\imath}-sa$, if he comes; $ph\bar{\imath}-sung-phen$, if I came; $ph\bar{\imath}-ngo-yu$, O that I might come, etc.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus $phit'-h\bar{e}$, coming-in, coming; phit'-nung, coming-with, when coming; phit'-khen, coming-from, after having come; $phit'-sing-h\bar{e}$, coming-time-at, when coming. The instrumental of the reduplicated base is often used as a kind of conjunctive participle; thus, $phit'-phit'-h\bar{a}$, having come. An infinitive of purpose is formed by adding mung; thus, phit'-mung, in order to come. This form is also used as a kind of relative participle; thus, $phit'-mung\ lom$, a way to go on.

The common suffixes of relative participles are vi, denoting the agent, ta, forming a kind of past participle passive, and $t\bar{a}ng$ which is added in order to form a future participle passive; thus, $h\bar{a}$ -vi, who gives; $h\bar{a}$ -ta, given; $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}ng$, what will be given, tit to be given.

Causals.—Causals are formed by hardening a soft initial or else by suffixing ping to the base. Thus, buk', wake; puk', awaken: duk', move along; thuk-to, move it: bok, to be born; phok and bok-ping, beget.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed $m\tilde{a}$; thus, $m\tilde{a}$ $ph\tilde{i}$ -sung-mi, I did not come.

For further details the student is referred to Hodgson's grammar and to the specimen which follows, which has been reprinted from Hodgson's work. A list of words will be found on pp. 409 and ff.

[No. 36.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

VĀYU.

(B. H. Hodgson, 1857.)

thōko Ang ming Pāchya nom. Ang Vāvu nōmi. Khāsa-khāta tribe $V\bar{a}yu$ is. Myname Pāchya is.MyKhas is-chi-ke-m. Hāvu it-ke-m. Ung-ki davo-be Vāyu Gō jek-ta $H\bar{a}yu$ Our $V\bar{a}yu$ call-ourself-we. I oldcall-us. language-in dum-sung-mi. Hāthā-bong dum-sung-mi g-hā $m\bar{a}$ se-ng-mi. became-I. How-much-up-to became-Imehy notknow-I. wani-khen. Lē-gōt-kulup chhuyung Dhankuta-mu Foot-hands-entire threetop-from. Dhankuta-of hā-ta khakchhing-puchhum-chup-vi-khāta pā-chi-kok-mi. pōgu-ha vik soldiersRaja-by givenfieldcultivate-for-us-we. Gajrāj Thápa nung nomi. nom. tā-wo Ang kõ ${
m m}ar{{
m a}}$ Ang M_{II} land notis.MysonGajrājThā pa withis.Wathim inang-munang wathi yeng-kum. nārung Gon-hā kõphe nakphe two-times herehimsaw. Hisform Thee-by one-time gōn-hā Honko thum rāmi. blek-tum. Wathin chho le pō-kum. At-first heartHisbodyalsomade.hisfeared. thee-by portrayed. lit'nung thūm hā-nung hon-ping-kum. Ang dāvo Kaptān-hā giving agree-made-him. J/yCaptain-by heart language teaching chupsit mut-ping-kum. blining chōlo khen inhe gōn-hā gō months ending fromherethee-by to-stay-causedst. four meDāvo chingngak chamchem. Gōn sēn-che. Ung-jitā difficult-is. Thou knowest-for-thyself. very Thy-asked Language 1 ithaji nomi, thum-be chit-num. Ang gōn-hã wālige dāvo g-hā taught-thee. Myheart-in hope isthee-by soon question me-by Ang-ki thōko Kōsi blingmu imba lat-ping-ngom. homba tribeOur $K ar{o} s i$ river that-side-on this-side-on to-go-allowed-shall-be. Nēpāl-khāral khen Tāmbakōsi bong mus-chi-kok-mi. mus-chi-kok-mi. sit-we. Nepal-valley from $T\bar{a}mbak\bar{o}si$ sit-we. toawal-be mut-vi māng no-kok-mi. Kūswār Gō-khāta Bōtia Wefever-districts-in sitting $K\bar{u}sw\bar{a}r$ Botia notare-we. mut-vi ramsa-hā Denwar awal-be no-ne-m. Awal-mu gāng fever-districts-in sitting Fever-of fear-by river D $reve{e}$ n $oldsymbol{w}$ $ar{a}r$ are. pō-vi ghādi-mu mā mus-chi-kok-mi. Vik māng chokphi khēva notsit-we. Cultivation notdoing forest-of herbs near 3 E 2 VOL. III, PART I.

bāhamu setung thōko Kusūnda Chēpāng jō-vi kem $m\bar{a}$ pō-vi eating like notfruits housemaking tribes $Kusar{u}nda$ Chēpāng chhāju puchhi-be mus-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki-mu kem nomi; $m\bar{a}$ hillsUs-of ıs; summits-on notsit-we. housevik nomi: pāngamu memha makai dōsi phāphai le vik nom. maizekodobuckwheat fieldalsocultivablefield is, thus bōja sākha livi vik lēvi rōwa $m\bar{a}sa$ gōhūņ lāru nom. ricemilletcotton beans barley wheat madder riven ny field is.Ang-ki mülung Hengong-wo Lapchā kölu-be bāha, Limbu Our homes Newar in-one-place manner, $Lapchar{a}$ Limbubāha jāhe, chhāju mādum-be gadhà pāhe mus-chi-kok-mi. māng notmiddle-in manner changing, hillsterraces making sit-we. pūchhi-be Chhāju bōja 'li-che-m. jomsit-mu mā ming mische Hillstop-on ricegrain-of not grows, nameanyHānung lichem, le $m\bar{a}$ nom. bong jomsit minung bong How-much up-to is.grain grows, also notthat up-to mus-chi-kok-mi. Gª-hā-khāta-hā ruk-lung-be lat'-lat'-ha ruk-kok-mi sit-we. Us-by ploughing-country-in going $plough\cdot we$ duk-kok-mi. Phalām-tu'-vi duk-lung-be sing-chuk'-vi kōchōn-vi $digging\hbox{-} country\hbox{-} in$ dig-we. Smiths carpenters potters $m\bar{a}$ Kam-pā-chyāng bingcho-pā-chyang thok-be no-me-m. ang-ki Utensilstribe-in notare. ornaments our göt-khen ing-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki gyēti-m kem ang-ki gōt-hā Our other-of hand-from buy-we. houses our hand-with Ang-ki wās-chyāng ang-ki vik pā-chi-kok-mi. sē-tang rōwa-khen Our dressmake-for-us-we. our fieldgatheredcotton-from dūri chinching-hā rome-khāta-hā jēwa pūng-me-m. Vāyu-khāta clothes $d\bar{u}ri$ spinning weave-they. wives-by Vayuskhakchhing-puchhum-pō-vi (or -chup-vi) $m\tilde{a}$ nō-me-m. Mische-pā gvēti soldiers notare. Any-way other Jēwa sēva pō-me-m. Hengong-wo namsang-mu mā göt-khen servicedo.Clothes smell-of not $N\bar{e}w\bar{a}rs$ hand-from loncho-khata jēwa rangai pō-me-m; dāwāng-mi (sic) wās-chi-me-m; whitedo; mendyeclothes wear; rangau-pō-ta mes-cho-khāta wās-chi-mem. Ang-ki mu-lung ithijila nō-mi. dyedwomen villages smallare. kulup-hā gōt bā kulup-khen chholup bong Nāyung muphta chhāju entire-with halfhands entire-from score Twoup-to seatedhills īt-hā dōk-hā ham-ta nō-me-m. Ang-ki chhālung mādūm-be kemsing-hā Our here there scatteredsides-on are. houses rough timber-from di-ha wamta hūng-lung-kō-hā rō-ta pō-ta khisti-hā sup-ta (?)cane-with chalk(?)-with plasteredmadestraw-with thatched

vāyu. 397

 $\mathbf{K}\mathbf{em}$ bhitari gēge-gēge pā-chi-mem. nāyung kuna no-chhik-mi, kõlu House within twomade-are. rooms are,separately one kõlu khō'-lung. Tā-wo-khāta tā-mi-khāta gēge-ta $m\bar{a}$ im-lung girlsonecooking-room. Boys. separate-place sleeping-room not Bangchodum-khen pa-chi-kok-mi. Nāyung biak gotkulup-hā hok-mi. TwoMaturity-from marriagemake-we. hands entire-with sleep. kulup-khen hā-hā-hā gōt kulup bong pēnku $b\bar{a}$ rome allfeet hands up-to rupees giving entire-from wives halfPēnku phem māng won-ti-ke namrome upu kem-be ing-chi-kok-mi. can-we ifwifeMoney notfatherhouse-in paybuy-our-we. Mische lat'-lat'-hā pā-pā-hā pheng-kok-mi. ${
m m}{
m ar{a}}$ pā-pā-hā me'-ta kam Anything doingdeadworkdoing pay-we. notgoing kō-be khum-pop-mi. Khōcho puk chēli bēli mēchho sing-tong Fowlswinegoatsheep earth-in bury-we. buffaloes person jā-chi-kok-mi; jā-kok-mi; bhālu phōka mā singwo-khūdu gai bearsmonkeys eat-we; eat-we; cows notbees-honey tung-kok-mi. jā-kok-mi. Söve tung-chi-kok-mi, bukchha-le dūdu chālung eat-we. Beer drink-we-our, spirits-also drink-we. milkeggstung-kok-mi; ching-ngak bukehha Söve ang-ki pō-ta gyēti-m spiritsmuchdrink-we; madeothers-of Beerourtung-chi-kok-mi. Ang-ki ing-ta yang-ngak chho-be göt-khen $m\bar{a}$ Our littledrink-we. body-in boughthand-from notnökchhung sas-chi-kok-mi, blek-chi-kok-mi; mescho le toncho le. alsotattoo-ourselves-we; ears bore-we, women menalso. chölvi suna-le dak-kok-mi. Ang-ki Balung-khen gyēti $m\bar{a}$ bālung, physicianExorcist-from othernotwish-we. Our any exorcist, suna-le ${f m}ar{f a}$ nom. Vāyu thōko-mu singtong suna-hā brahman gyēti any-by $V\bar{a}yu$ tribe-of brāhman otheranynotis.person Gyēti-m khok-chi-kok-mi. hon-mi. lom mā Ang-ki vik lama mā Others-of Ourobey. not walk-we. fieldlama notway hā-khele $m\bar{a}$ wat-kok-mi. Upo met'-khen tāwo-khāta-hā chhing-ngak abandon-we. ever Fatherdied-from sons-by muchyang-ngak $m\bar{a}$ pāpā-hā ling-me-m. Tāmi-khāta-hā mische-le ling-me-m. $m\bar{a}$ littlenotdoing get-they. Daughters-by anything notget-they. Imha-mu dawo dēvi ang-ki mājhua nō-mi. Inung wanikhen Such disputes decidingourvillage-headman Himis. frompōvi sunā-le $\mathbf{m}ar{\mathbf{a}}$ nom. Ang-ki thōko gyēti-m gōt-be lās-ta yang-ta making anyone is. Ourtribeothers-of hand-in gone decreasedthōko nāti tolgong bong yang-mi. tribehandfuls twotilldecreased-is.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Pachya. I am a Vāyu. The Khas tribe call us Hāyu, but in our own tongue we call ourselves Vāyu. I am an old man. I do not know how old I am, but I am more than sixty years old. We cultivate the land assigned by the Rāja to the soldiers of the Dhankuta regiment. I have no land of my own. My son is in the service of Gajrāj Thāpa. You have seen him here several times, and drawn his portrait, and measured him. At first he was alarmed, but the captain reassured him, and induced him to consent. You have kept me here four months that I might teach you my language. Our language is very difficult, you must judge for yourself. I can only answer your questions. I hope that you will soon let me go.

Our tribe live on both sides of the Kosi, from the Valley of Nepal to the Tambakosi. We do not live in the fever districts, as do the Kuswars, the Botias, and the We do not live near the river for fear of the fever. We do not, neither, live on the hill summits like the Kusunda and Chepang tribes, who never cultivate but live on wild herbs and fruits, and never build houses. We have houses, and cultivate the soil, growing maize, kodo, buckwheat, rice, millet, cotton, beans, barley, wheat, madder. We have fixed homes like the Newars, and are not migratory like the Lepchas and Limbus. We occupy the central parts of the hill slopes, which we cut into terraces. Rice will not grow on the tops, nor any description of grain. We go up as high as grain will grow. We use the plough where it is possible. In other places we use the spade. We have no smiths, carpenters, or potters. We buy utensils and ornaments from others. We build our own houses, and our dress is made of home-grown cotton which our wives spin and weave. No Vayus are soldiers, and we never take menial service. The Newars dye our clothes. The men use white clothes, but the women wear dved clothes. Our villages are small, usually fifteen to twenty houses, scattered here and there along the hill-sides. Our houses are made of rough timber, interlaced with canes, plastered with chalk, and thatched with strav. There are two rooms in the house, one for sleeping and another for cooking. There is no general dormitory for the grown up boys and girls of the village. We marry at maturity. We buy our wives at a cost of from fifteen to twenty rupees. If we have no money, we carn her by working in her father's house. We bury our dead without any ceremony. We eat fowls, swine, goats, sheep, and buffaloes, but not cows, bears, or monkeys. We also eat honey, milk and eggs. We drink beer and spirits. The beer is home-brewed, and we drink much of it. We must buy the spirits from others, and we therefore do not drink much of it. We do not tattoo our bodies, but we hore our ears, the men as well as the women. We have no other priest than the exorcist. He is also our physician. None of the Vayu tribe follow the brāhmans or lamas, and we do not adopt foreign customs. We never abandon our fields. When the father dies, the sons equally inherit him, the daughters do not inherit. Our village headman decides our disputes. We never appeal from him. Our tribe has been subjugated by others, and is reduced to very inconsiderable numbers.

OTHER NEPAL DIALECTS.

Hodgson has published vocabularies of several more Nepal dialects. Some of them such as Dahi, Dēnwār, Kuswār, Pākhyā and Thāru are Aryan forms of speech and do not interest us in this connexion. Others are of the same kind as Vāyu, and it will be of interest to collect such scraps of information about their grammar as can be gathered from Hodgson's vocabularies. Some short notes about the dialects of the Bhrāmus, the Chēpāngs, the Kusūndas, and the Thāksyas therefore follow. They are entirely based on the materials published by Hodgson.

The Chēpāng and Kusūnda tribes live in the central region of Nepal, to the west of the Vāyus. Their dialects are complex, pronominalized, forms of speech. The same is the case with the language of the Bhrāmu tribe, who dwell in the Nepal Terai. With regard to the remaining dialect, that of the Thāksya tribe, I am unable to state whether it is a pronominalized form of speech or not.

The vocabulary of these dialects is relatively free from Aryan loan-words, as will be seen from the short comparative vocabulary which follows:—

	Chēpāng.	Kusūnda.	Bhrāmu.	Thaksya.
One	yā-zho	goi-sīng	$d\hat{e}$	ιlī
Two	nhi-zho	$ghar{\imath}nga$	ni	ngi
Three	sum-zho	$d\bar{\imath}ha$	รพอิท	som
Four	plōi∙zho	pinjāng	bi	bla
Five	pūma-zho	pangangjāng	bāngā	ng ī
Six	krūk-zho			tu
Seven	chānā-zho			nges
Eight	prap-zho			bhre
Nine	taku-zho			ku
Геп	gyib-zho			chyu
I wenty				ngiy u
Fifty				nga syu
Hundred				bhra

	Chēpāng.	Kusünds.	Bhrāmu.	Thāksya.
[$ngar{a}$	chi	ngā	$ghy\bar{a}ng$
T hou	nāng	nu	nāng	nga
Who?		nātat	hai	iā
Wkat?		nātāng		khaj u pero
Bird	$war{a}$	kotau	jyāling	nom'ya
Blood	$war{e}ar{i},war{i}$	uyū	chīwī	kā
Child		gitasē, chyāchi		ālōpichām
Cow	mō-syā	nokmwa	$syar{a}$	$mhar{e}$
Day	nyî	dina	dinā	sar
Dog	$kw\bar{\imath}$	agai	akyā	nīga
Ear	nē, nō	chyāu	kānā	nha
Egg	wā-kūm	ņwā	hom	chhyārkyaphūm
Eye	$mai,\ mik$	chining	mik	mi
Fire	$mar{e},mar{i}$	$jar{a}$	māï	$mhar{e}$
Fish	nyā, ngā	$ng\bar{a}sa$	$nar{a}ngar{a}$	trangnyā
Foot	la	$ch \bar{\imath} n$	ūnsik	mulethin
Goat	mēsyā, m īchā	mijha	$m\bar{\imath}chha$	$rar{a}mo$
Hair	mē1i	gyaii	syām	chham
Hand	$kar{u}t$ - t	gipa	bhit	yāyāthin
Head	tā, tōlong	chipi	kāpā	ta
Hog	$py\bar{a}$ (k)	hī, yāsa	paksyā	tič

	Chēpāng.	Kusūnda.	Bhrāmu.	Thāksya.	
Horn	$rar{o}ng$	iping jing	นิท <i>y</i> ลี	ru	
House	kyim, tim	bāhi	nam	ghim	
Moon	lahe, lame	jun	chalawani	lātingā	
Mountain	rīās	parbat	$d\bar{a}nda$	$yedadhy oldsymbol{u}$	
Mouth	mōtong	birgyā.l	anīm	sung	
Name	myēng	giji	min	min	
${f Night}$	$yar{a}$	inggai		mun	
Road $ly\bar{a}m$		won	ūmmā	ghyām	
Sky	sārāg	$l\bar{a}g\bar{a}i$		mu	
Smoke	lū	tou	$par{i}igar{u}$	puḍhi	
Stone	$bar{a}ng$		$k \bar{v} n g - b \bar{a}$		
Sun	nyām	ing	unī	ghãngi, saughini	
liger -	$jar{a}$ -(kela)	dījā kāuli	būmāng	n ā	
l'ooth	srēk	toho	$swar{m{\imath}}$	gyo	
Гree	sing (-tak)	ī	simma	ghy u ng	
Vater	tē	tāng	āwā	kya	
J ood	pito	waiyaki	$g\bar{a}do$	$ar{asba}$	
Bad	pilo	ka-ingbarai	madō	na āsb a	
Far	dyāng-to	isinha	kalōk	chari	
Vear	lokto	ista	kanyāk	nyese	
Pall		phiyong	alhok	bauchhãba	

	Chēpāne.	Küsunda.	Bhrāmu.	Thāksya.	
Short		poktok	anyak	putulv	
Eat	jēche, jhīsa	ām	chā	thila	
Drink	tūmche, tumsa	tāng gonong	syāngā	pi-u	
Sleep	emche, yemsa	ιρtu	nāwa	nhuko	
Come		agga	thāyā	khau	
Go		$d\vec{a}$	yēngā	$h\epsilon ro$	
Run	k², k²sa	$gorgowar{o}to$	gēgwēya	nginahero	
Give	$b_{\widehat{u}}$	$ar{a}i$	руū	pino	
Strike		$pungbar{c}yo$	$mar{o}tar{o}$	tāu, thopāti	
Kill		puwāgo	sāto, aprīto	thagothāpāt i	

CHĒPĀNG.

The Chepangs live in the dense forests of the central region of Nepal, to the west of the great valley.

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Chepang is a dialect of the complex, pronominalized type. We are only unsatisfactorily informed about its grammatical features. Hodgson was of or into that the dialect was likely to disappear ere long. I do not know in how far this forecast has been verified.

Nouns.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions; thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $m\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{u}rsi$, man; $m\bar{z}r\bar{u}$, woman; to,

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grandfather; aie, grandmother: chō, boy; chō-riāng, girl: hou, brother; hou-dhiāng, sister: palam, husband; malam, wife: you-shyā, bull; mō-shyā, cow.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes. Mai in $w\bar{o}$ -mai, they, and lum in $ng\bar{i}$ -lum, we, are perhaps plural suffixes.

The genitive can apparently be formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word without any suffix; thus, $w\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{u}m$, bird's egg, egg. The suffix ku means 'of,' and is probably used when the governing word is understood.

Other cases are indicated by adding postpositions. Such are $s\bar{a}i$, to; $\bar{\imath}$, with, from; $h\bar{a}ng$, in, on.

Numerals.—The first ten numerals are:—

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yā-zho, yā-zyo, one.

nhi-zho, nhi-zyo, two.

sum-zho, sum-zyo, three.

plōï-zho, plōi-zyo, four.

pūma-zho, pūma-zyo, five.
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krūk-zho, krūk-zyo, six.
chānā-zho, chānā-zyo, seven.
prap-zho, prap-zyo, eight.
taku-zho, taku-zyo, nine.
gyīb-zho, gyib-zyo, ten.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

TIOHOGHD.	1 1	
$ng\bar{a}, \ \mathrm{I}.$	$n\bar{a}ng$, thou.	\bar{u} , he, she, it.
ngā-ku, my.	nāng-ku, thy.	\bar{u} - kv , his, her, its.
ngī-lum, we.	ning-lum, you.	$w\bar{o}$ -mai, they.
ngī-ku, our.	ning-ku, your.	\bar{u} -mai-ku, their.

Verbs.—We know almost nothing about the conjugation of verbs. Forms such as $b\bar{u}$ -i, give; le-i, take, are probably imperatives. The same is perhaps the case with forms ending in che and s-che; thus, $j\bar{e}$ -che, eat; tum-che, drink; $m\bar{u}$ -s-che, sit down; $nh\bar{o}$ -s-che, speak.

Hodgson supposed the forms ending in sa to be verbal nouns; thus, $jh\bar{\imath}-sa$, to eat; tum-sa, to drink; mu-sa, to sit down. It is however also possible that they are relative participles or nouns of agency; compare $r\bar{\imath}p-sa$, tailor; naikyou-sa, weaver, and so on.

Certain verbal forms end in $\bar{a}ng$; thus, $bajhin\bar{a}ng$, to request. Hodgson supposed that they were participles. They can also be verbal nouns; compare, youngsang, tasting; $iensat\bar{a}ng$, murder; $latil\bar{a}ng$, robbery; $mharl\bar{a}ng$, love, and so on.

The negative participle is apparently a suffixed lo; thus, pito. good; pi-lo, bad; nim-to, sweet; nim-lo, sour; bainang-lo, to refuse. Compare the negative suffix lo in some Kuki Chin dialects.

KUSŪNDA.

The Kusunda live in the same district as the Chepangs, viz., in the jungles of the central region of Nepal, close to the plains, to the westward of the great valley. Hodgson in 1848 predicted the extinction of the tribe within a few generations, and it can only be very insignificant.

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Hodgson, B. H.,—Continuation of the Comparative Vocabulary of the Languages of the broken Tribes of Nepál. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxvi, 1857, pp. 327 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects, Vol. i, London 1880, pp. 171 and ff.

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"—On Tibeto-Burman Languages. Ibidem, Vol. x, 1878, pp. 210 and ff. Contains vocabularies, Kusunda, etc.

"—Comparative Grammar of the Languages of Further India: a fragment. And other Essays. London 1881. Contains vocabularies, Kusunda, etc.

Hodgson classed Kusunda as a dialect of the complex pronominalized type. The short remarks which follow are based on the vocabulary published by him.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished by using different terms or by adding words with the meaning 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $p\bar{a}i$, father; $m\bar{a}i$, mother: $talas\bar{a}i$, boy; $taks\bar{e}$, girl: $d\bar{u}w\bar{o}i$, husband; ningdai $my\bar{a}hoa$, wife; mih'ya $daw\bar{a}i$, man; ningdai, woman; $gy\bar{a}$ kotau, male bird; gimi kotau, female bird: $\bar{a}gai$ $gy\bar{a}$, dog; $\bar{a}gai$ gimi, bitch, and so on.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes.

Cases are formed by adding postpositions. Such are nata igin, of; $t\bar{a}i$, in; lai, to; $j\bar{a}ng\ jai$, from; $\bar{a}i$, by; $t\bar{a}ngche$, with; $k\bar{a}uth\bar{a}i$, without, and so on.

Numerals.—The first five numerals are $go\ddot{\imath}$ - $s\ddot{a}ng$, one; $gh\bar{\imath}nga$, two; $d\ddot{a}ha$, three; pin- $j\ddot{a}ng$, four; pangang- $j\ddot{a}ng$, five. The final $s\ddot{a}ng$, $j\ddot{a}ng$, in some of these forms is probably a generic particle.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

chi, I. nu, thou. gida, he, she, it. chīyī, my. $n\bar{\imath}y\bar{\imath}$, thy. gidayī, his, hers, its. tok'-jhinga, we two. nōk'-jhinga, you two. gida-jhinga, they two. tok-jhingayī, ours two. nok-jhingayī, yours two. gida-jhingayī, theirs two. chō-baki, we. noki-baki, togarāki, you. pida-baki, their. cho-baki-yida, toki-baki-mida, ours. noki-baki-yida, yours. gida-baki-yida, theirs.

The suffix jhinga in the dual forms is probably another form of ghinga, two.

Some other forms are given in another place in Hodgson's vocabulary; thus, ki, I; tangda, me; gido-dāni, him; tok-jhingai, by us two; tok-khāgyai, by us; tokkhādai, us; nok-khag, you, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are ta and tai, this; issi and it, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are nātat, who? nātāng, what? nataim'ya hak, anyone; nataum'ya hāgit, anything.

Verbs.—Hodgson gives the following table of the present tense active and passive of pungbogo, strike,—

ki pomatanha-u, I beat.
nu pomatawa, thou beatest.
gida pomatawa, he beats.
tok-jhingai pomatanhaï, we two beat.
nok-jhinga pomatawa, you two beat.
gida-jhinga pomatawa, they two beat.
tok-khāgyai pomatanhaï, we beat.
nok-khag pomatawa, you beat.
gidaki pomatawa, they beat.

tangda pungmatabahini, I am beaten.

gidodāni gidai pungmataba, he is beaten. tok-jhigai pomatabai, we two are beaten.

gida-jhinga gi pungmataba, they two are beaten. tokkhādai pomatabai, we are beaten.

gidakhai gi pungmataba, they are beaten.

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The base alone is apparently used as an imperative; thus, $\bar{a}m$, eat; $d\bar{a}$, go; $\bar{a}i$, give; $m\bar{a}$, take. Suffixes such as o, u, and a can apparently be added; thus, $gorgow\bar{o}to$, run; $pungb\bar{o}go$, strike; $puw\bar{a}go$, kill; mangbo, hear; $au\bar{o}$, do; iptu, sleep; agga, come; $pw\bar{a}ktoba$, speak, and so on.

Negative imperatives are anibil, do not; anoktabin, do not speak; $ab\bar{a}g\bar{a}nebin$, be silent. They are apparently formed by prefixing a and suffixing bill or bin. A prefixed negative \bar{a} seems to occur in $\bar{a}yew\bar{a}$, no.

BHRĀMU.

The Bhrāmus are one of the tribes of the Nepal Tarai. At the last Census of 1901, 15 speakers of the Bhrāmu dialect were returned from Assam.

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HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia, London 1868.

Hodgson stated that Bhrāmu is a dialect of the complex pronominalized type. The materials published by him are still the only foundation of our knowledge of the dialect. They are not sufficient for more than drawing attention to some few facts.

Nouns and adjectives are often preceded by a prefix a; thus, $a-ky\bar{a}$, \log ; a-nap, ant; $a-n\bar{a}m$, mouth; a-mai, mother; a-bo, white; a-lhok, \log ; a-nyak, short; a-lham, large, and so on. This a is probably a demonstrative pronoun.

We have no information about the way in which the natural genders are distinguished. $Bab\bar{a}i$ is 'father' and a-mai, mother, and these words are probably used in order to denote the sex, as is the case in connected dialects.

There are apparently two numbers, the singular and the plural. The final $d\bar{u}$ in $h\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{u}$, they, is probably a plural suffix.

Cases are formed by adding postpositions such as $k\bar{u}$, of; $t\bar{u}$, to; $g\bar{a}ng$, $j\bar{a}ng$, from; di, in; $th\bar{a}chi$, in, on; $g\bar{a}\ddot{i}$, on, upon; chou, with.

The first five numerals are $d\bar{e}$, one; ni, two; $sw\bar{o}m$, three; bi, four; $b\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$, five.

The following are the personal pronouns:-

 $ng\bar{a}$, I. $n\bar{a}ng$, thou. \bar{u} , he, she, it. $ng\bar{a}-k\bar{u}$, my. $n\bar{a}ng-k\bar{u}$, thy. $\bar{u}-k\bar{u}$, his, her, its. $n\bar{c}$, we. $n\bar{u}ng$, you. $h\bar{u}d\bar{u}$, they. $n\bar{c}-k\bar{u}$, our. $n\bar{u}ng-k\bar{u}$, your. $\bar{u}n-k\bar{u}$, their.

The base \bar{u} , $h\bar{u}$, is also used as a remote demonstrative; thus, $h\bar{u}di$, there. The corresponding nearer demonstrative is apparently $h\bar{i}$; thus, $h\bar{i}di$, here.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are hai, who? ku-wa, how much? $s\bar{u}ng$, somebody; $h\bar{a}ng$, something.

We do not know much about the conjugation of verbs. The base alone, without any suffix, is apparently used as a present; thus, $m\bar{o}$ and lik, it is, yes; $m\bar{a}$ -mi and a-lik, it is not, no.

The base alone, or with one of the suffixes \bar{a} and o or \bar{u} , is used as an imperative; thus, $ch\bar{a}$, eat; so, get up; $sy\bar{o}$, walk; $sy\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, drink; $th\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, come; $y\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$, go; $th\bar{a}yo$, take; $s\bar{a}to$, kill; $py\bar{u}$, give, etc.

The negative participle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or a, before imperatives a prefixed $m\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -mi, not is, no; a-lik, not is, no; $m\bar{a}$ $p\bar{e}$ and $m\bar{a}$ khale, do not speak, be silent.

The vocabulary is, to a great extent, mixed with Aryan words.

THĀKSYA.

Our information about the Thāksyas and their language is very unsatisfactory. I am unable to decide whether the dialect belongs to the pronominalized or to the non-pronominalized class.

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BEAMES, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

Calcutta 1867. Appendix A contains numerals in Thaksya, etc.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London 1868..

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes such as $gy\bar{a}$, $dh\bar{o}$, $r\bar{a}go$, yese, male; $m\bar{a}$, moma, mama, iso, female. Thus, $\bar{a}bo$, father; $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, mother: mrinthin, husband; $mrinmh\bar{i}$, wife: pyung, man; mrin, woman: $kh\bar{e}ba$, old man; $kh\bar{u}gyu$, old woman: $mh\bar{e}$ -yese, bull; $mh\bar{e}$ -mama, cow; $r\bar{a}mo$ - $gy\bar{a}$, he goat; $r\bar{a}mo$ - $m\bar{a}$, she-goat; mai $r\bar{a}go$, he-buffalo; mai moma, she buffalo: nom'ya $dh\bar{o}$, male bird; nom'ya iso, female bird.

We do not know anything about the existence of separate dual and plural suffixes. Cases are formed by adding postpositions. Such are chaye, of; dhyāri, to; kyāche, from; kau, by; ngāyero, with; ārobhoja, without; hīsono, in.

Numerals.—The	first numerals are:—	,
1 di.	6 tu.	1 20 ngiyu.
2 ngi.	7 nges.	30 sombu.
3 som.	8 bhre.	$40 \ blibyu.$
4 bla.	9 ku.	50 ngasyu.
$5 ng\bar{a}$.	$10 \ chyu.$	100 bhra.

It will be seen that higher numbers are counted in tens.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

·	1 r	
$ghy\bar{a}ng$, I.	$\mid nga$, thou.	mhi, chana, he, she, it.
ghyang-ge, my, mine.	ngāye, thy, thine.	mhiye, his, her, its.
ghyang-si, we two.	$ng\bar{\imath}$ -si, you two.	mhi-si, they two.
ghyangsi-ye, our two.	$ng\bar{\imath}$ -si-ye, your two.	mhi-si-ye, their two.
ghyang-cha, we.	nga-cha, you.	mhi-cha, they.
ghyang-cha-ye, our.	nga-cha-ye, your.	mhi-cha-ye, mni-ye-ke, their

It will be seen that there are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The table of the present tense of the verb $t\bar{a}\ddot{u}$, strike, reproduced below, contains another set of forms; thus, ngajai, by me, I; chyang-chai, by thee. It seems as if the forms of the first and second persons have been interchanged in one of the two tables.

Demonstrative pronouns are paang kyungpa (sic), this; cha and khapami, that.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $t\bar{a}$, who? khajupero, what? sabadhyangpa, anyone; khajāngpēmhi, anything.

Verbs.—Hodgson gives the following table of the present tense active and passive of the verb $t\bar{a}\ddot{u}$, beat—

ngajai toba, I beat.
chyang-chai tobā, thou beatest.
the tobamu, he beats.
nginji tobakā, we two beat.
namāngi tobamu, you two beat.
thamangi tobamu, they two beat.
ngingichai tobamu, we beat.
nama-cha tobamu, you beat.
mhi-cha-ka tobamu, they beat.

nga-zir tobamu, I am beaten.

agingi tobamu, we two are beaten.

ngiri, we are beaten.

Imperatives are lhau, do; khau, come; reto, wake; hero, go; pino, give; lhila, eat; $t\bar{u}pa$, sit down, etc. Negative imperatives are formed by prefixing tha; thus, tha lau, do not; tha $ty\bar{a}t\bar{o}$, do not speak.

The usual negative particle is apparently a prefixed \bar{a} ; thus, ai, no; $mhi-\bar{a}-ky\bar{a}hop\bar{a}$, look-not-good, ugly. We also find forms such as na $\bar{a}sba$, not good, bad, with the Aryan na, not.

STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE EASTERN

Eng	glish.			Dhim	āl (Ho	dgson).	,	Thā	mi (Daı	rjeelin	g).		Simbu (Nepal,).		Yākh	ā (Darj	æling).	ı
1. One.	•	•	•	Е	,			Diware		•	•	•	Thik, or lop-thik	•		Ikko		•	
2. Two.		•		Ngē .		•		Nis .			•		Nechhi	•		Hich-chi		•	. •
3. Three		•		Süm .	•			Tin.	•		•		Sām-sī		•	Sum-ji		•	·. •
4. Four	•	•	•	Diā .		•		Chār				•	Lī-sī	•		Li-ji		•	, <u>.</u>
5. Five	•	•	•	Nā	, ,	•		Pänch	•				Nā-si			Ngā-ji		•	. •
6. Six .	•	•	•	Tũ.	•	•		Chhau		•	•		Tūk-sī		•	Tuk-ji		•	, •
7. Seven		•	•	Nhii .	•	•		Sāt.	•	•	•	•	Nū-sī		•	Nu-ji		•	•
8. Eight				Yē.	•	•		Āṭh	•		•	•	Yechhi		•	Yech-chi	•	•	•
9. Nine	•	•	•	Kūhā .	•	•		Nau	•		•	•	Phāng-sī .	•		Phang-ji	•	, .	
10. Ten .		•	•	Tē.	•	•		Das	•	•	•	٠	Thi-bong .	•	,	. Ibong	•	, ,	
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Bīsa	•	•		Bīs.		•	•	•	Ni-bong	•		. Hi-bong		, ,	
12. Fifty	•	•	•			••		Pachās			•	. ;	Nâ-gip	•	,	. Hi-bong	hich-ch	i nga	ibong
13. Hundred		•	•	Nā bīsa	•	•	•	Sahe	•	•	•		Mānā thik, thī-bon thī-kip.	g ki	ip, or	Ichurup	• .	•	•
14. I .	•		•	Kā.	•	•		Gai	•	•	•	•	Angā	•		Kā			
15. Of me	•	•	•	Kāng-ko	•	•		Gai·ko	٠	•	•	•	Angā-īn, ā	•	•	$ar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{g}ar{\mathbf{a}} ext{-be}$		•	
16. Mine	•	•	•	Kāng-ko	•	•		Gai-ko	•	•	•		Angā-īn, ā	•	•	Āgā		•	
17. We .	•	•	•	Kyēl	•	•		Ai-mi			•	•	$ar{ extbf{A}}$ nī, $ar{ ext{a}}$ nīgē .	•		Āning	. •	•	•
18. Of us	•	•	•	King-ko	•	•		Mi-ko ār	ıg	•	•		Āni-in, ānigin .	•		Āningā-b	9.	•	•
19. Our.	•	•	•	King-ko	•	•		Mi-ko		•	•	•	Āni-in, ānigin .	•	•	Āningā		•	•
20. Thou	•	•	•	Nā.	•	•		Nānko	•	•	•	•	Khenē	•		Ing-khi		•	•
21. Of thee	•	•	•	Nāng-ko		•	• .	Nānko 1	nā	•	•	•	Khenē-īn, k'	•	•	Ingā		•	•
22. Thine	•	•	•	Nāng-ko	•	• •	• •	Nānko	•	•	•	•	Khenē-in, k'	•		Ingā		, ,	•
23. You.	•	•	•	Nyēl	•	•	• •	Nāng	•	•	•	•	Khenī	•	•	Ing-khi	•	•	•
24. Of you	•	•	• [Ning-ko	•	•		Nāng-ko	ngān	ğ	•	• ;	Kheni-in.	•	•	Ingā		•	. •
25. Your	•	•		Ning-ko .	. ,	•		Nang-ko	٠.	•	•		Kheni-in .	•		Inga			. •

PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rāi (Nepal).	Vāyu (Hodgson).	English.
Ibom	Kwong	Tik-pu	Kolu	1. One.
Ngichchi	Niksi	Sak-pu	Na-yung	2. Two.
Supchi	Sam	Suk-pu	Chhu-yung	3. Three.
Lichi	Lē	Bhaluk-pu, or maluk-pu .	Bli-ning	4. Four.
Ngāchi	Ngō	Bhok-pu	Ū-ning	5. Five.
Tukchi	Rukba	Jhak-pu	Chhu-ning	6. Six.
Nuchi	Channi	Rok-pu		7. Seven.
Rechi	Yā	Rik-pu, or rek-pu		8. Eight.
Bochi	Ghū	Tam-pu, or tum-bu		9. Nine.
Ikpong	Kwaddyum	Tik-ri	Nāyung got' khulup .	10. Ten.
kkhālo	Kwong āsim	Sākari	Le got' khulup; cholok .	11. Twenty.
Pachās	Niksi āsim ā-phlo	Bhokari		12. Fifty.
Ngāk-khal	Ngō āsim	Tik-ri-tu	Ū-ning cholok	13. Hundred.
Kongā	Gō	Āng	Gō	14. I.
)-pi	Wā	Wa-po	Ang	15. Of me.
)-mi	Wā-ke	Wa-po	Ang-mu	16. Mine.
ζei 	Gō-sūkū (I and he), gō-si (I and thou); gō-ku (I	Inki	Go khāta	17. We.
O-khi-pi	and they), gō-i (I and you). Wā-si (my and his), ī-si (my and thy); wake (my and their), ike (my and your).	Inki-po	chi (my and thy); angki (my and their), ung-ki	18. Of us.
-mi	Wā-si-ke, ī-si-ke; wakke, ikke.	Inki-po . · . · .	(my and your). Ang-chi, ung-chi; ang-ki, ung-ki.	19. Our.
Ammi	Gā	Ānā . ·	Gōn	20. Thou.
lm-pi	Ī	Ā-po	Ung	21. Of thee.
ım-mi	Ī-ke	Ā-po	Ung-mu	22. Thine.
inā	Gā-si (dual) ; gā-ni (plural)	Ānu	Gon-chhe (dual); gonc (plural).	23. You. ·
m-miāse	Ī-si (dual); ī-ni (plural) .	Ā-po	Ung-chhi (dual); un-ni (plural).	24. Of you.
im-mi . ·	Ī-si; ī-ni	Ã-po	_	25. Your.

Engli	sh			Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling
26. Не .	•	•	•	Wā	Dhā	. Khūnē	Isāngālo
27. Of him	•	•	•	Ō-ko; wān-ko	Dhā-ko ngāng.	. Khūnē-īn, kū-	U-gā-be
28. His .	•			Õ-ko; wān-ko.	Dhā-ko . · · ·	. Khūnē-in, kū-	U-gā
29. They	•	•		$ ilde{\mathbf{U}} ext{-bal}$	Dhā-bang	. Khūn-chhī	U-jing-khi
30. Of them			•	Ū-bal-ko	Dhā-mang ngāng .	. Khūn-chhī-īn .	U-jing-khikkā-be
31. Their		•	•	Ū-bal-ko	. Ta-bang-ko	. Khūn-chhī-īn .	U-jingā
32. Hand	•	•	•	Khūr	. Lāk	· Hūk-tapē	Muk
33. Foot	•	•	•	Khōkōi	Konte	Lāng-tapē	Lang
34. Nose	•	•	•	Nhāpū	. Chinga	Nebō	Nāphuk
35. Еуе	•	•	•	Mi	. Mise	. Mik	Mik
36. Mouth		•	•	Nūi	. Ugo	. Murā	. Mulā
37. Tooth	•			Sitong	. Suwā	Hã, hãbô	Hā
38. Ear .	•	•	•	Nāhāthong	. Kulnā	. Nekhō, nēphak .	Nāphāk
39. Hair	•	•	•	Po-shom	. Chiméng.	. Mūrī (hair of body) thegēk-pī (hair of head).	, Tām-phāk ' . ' .
40. Head	•	•		Pūrin	. Kāpu	. Thegek	. Täng-khruk
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Dētong	Chile	. Lesőt, lesőp-pā	Lem ` . · .
42. Belly	•	•	•	Hēmāng ; pātām .	. Bāng-kāl	. Sapok	Phok
43. Back	•	•	•	Gāndi	. Lukushā	. Eg	. Missing
44. Iro n		•		Chir	. Chiûem	. Phenji	. Kekchi
45. Gold	•	•		Sona	. Sun	. Sāmyāng	. Sāmmyāng
46. Silver	•	•	•	Rūpā · · ·	. Chāndi	Yūpā	Yuppā
47. Father	•		•	Aba	. A-pā	Pā, pāpā	. Bā
48. Mother	•	•		Amma	Ā-mā	. Mā, māmā	Mā
49. Brother	٠.	•		Yolla	Bubu	Phū (elder); nūsā (younger	Phū
50. Sister	•	•		Rima	Humi	Nenně (elder); nūsā men- chhemā (younger).	Nā
51. Man		•	•	Wāval	Мі	135	Yāmbi
52. Woman	• .	. •		Beval	. Chā-maichā	Menchhemā .	. Metnyong-mā

.. ;

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rai (Nepal).	Väyu (Hodgson).	English.
Nā. · · · ·	Hārem . ·	Um·	Wathi	26. He.
Kho-pi • • • •	$ar{ ext{A}}, ext{h\bar{a}rem-ke}$	Um-po . · . · .	Wathi-m; ā . · .	27. Of him:
Kho-mi . · · ·	Ā-ke, hārem-ke	Um-po . · . · .	Wathi-m; ā . · .	28. His.
Kho-chi . · · ·	Hārem daa	Hā-mul . · . · .	Wathi khāta	29. They.
Kho-chi-pi . · · ·	Ā-ni	Hā-mul-po · . · .	Wathi-m khāta-m	30. Of them.
Kho-chi-mi·	Ā-ni	Hā-mul-po	Wathi-m khāta-m	31. Their.
Huh, huk · · · ·	Gu blem	Khar	Got	32. Hand.
Long· • · · •	Kholi blem	Phaālu	Lē . ·	83. Foot.
Nāp · • • • • • •	Neu	Unu · . · . · .	Cho'no	34. Nose.
Miksi	Michi	Miksi	Mēk'	85. Eye.
Ngo - • • • • •	Sheo · · · · ·	U-kam . · . · .	Mukchu . · . · .	36. Mouth.
Kāng	Khlen	Ngilo	Lū . · . · .	37. Tooth.
Kobo	Sāmaneu	Ngicho . · . · .	Nok'-chung	38. Ear. • •
osang	Swong	Do-sam	Swom	99. Hair.
'ong	Piya	Dākla	Pūchhi	4 0. Head.
em	Lyam	U-lem	Li	41. Tongue:
00	·Koja·	U-mupa	Muli; bimli . · .	42. Belly.
osi · · · · ·	Ching	Chhumru	Sēti·	43. Back
el	Syāl · . · . · .	Sel · . · . · .	Khakchhing-mi	44. Iron.
un • .•	Syeuna . ·	Nima; or sun	Heldung-mi	45. Gold.
hândi . · . ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Chandi	Dawāng-mi	46. Silver.
āā	Apo · . · . · .	Pu	Ūpū · . · . · .	47. Father.
lāā· .· .· .	Āmo · . · . · .	Mu	Ŭmā	49. Mother.
u ·(elder); ne-chha (younger).	Lō-bar (younger); yā-wa (elder).	Wā-lanchu	Bölo (elder); bālt (younger)	49. Brother:
		Nā-wa michum	Nunv (eldər) ; diyu (young- er).	50. Sister. •
issi• . · . · .	Wainsa	Min	Lõcho · · · ·	51. Mån. · ·
imchhā · . · .	Mincha	Michum . ° . · .	Mes'cho	52. Woman:

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thami (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling),
3. Wife	Вē	Umā	Met	Met-chhā
4. Child	Chan	Huchā	Henjā sā	Pichchhā
5. Son	Chan	Chā	Embechhā sā	Chyā
66. Daughter	Chamdi	Chā-mai	Menchhemā sā	Metnyu-bā
7. Slave		Sherhā	Yōgbā	Pānibā
8. Cultivator	Porja	,•••••	Yā-kē-mō-bā (daily labourer	Tendăngbā
9. Shepherd	······ .	Goțhālo	Kē-kōm-bā	Gothālā .
60. God	Wā-rāng; Bē-rāng	Bhagwān	Mang	Ishara
31. Devil		Bhut	Parēt	Bhut
2. Sun	Bēlā	Ūni	Nam	Nām
3. Moon	Tāli	Châlā	Lā-bā,	Lā
34. Star	Phūrō · · ·	Ūchhi	Khēsī-mik-pā	Chok-choki
55. Fire	Me	Meh	Mē	Mi
66. Water	Chi	Pāngķu	Chūā	Mang-chuwa
67. House	Sā	Nem	Him	Pāng
68. Horse	Öyhä	Ghorā	. Ōn	On
69. Cow	Pīā	Sujā	Pit	Pik
70. Dog	Khīā	Kuchu	Kocho	Kuchumā
71. Cat	Mēnkau	Birālo	. Miyong	Pusukmā
72. Cock	Dhāngāi kia	Gāre	. Wā bhālē	Ipāchhā .
73. Duck	Hangs	Hāns	. Hānsā	Hānsa
74. Ass	Gadha	Gadhá	Gadhā	Gadhāhā
75. Camel		Uṇṭ	. Unth	Unt
76. Bird	Jīhā	Rhāngāle	. Pa	Nuwā
77. Go	. Hadē-li (Verbal noun) .	Yāā	. Pēgē	Khiyā
78. Eat	Chā-li	Chiyā	. Chē	a.
79. Sit	Yong-li	Hokā	Yũng-ẽ	

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Båhing (Hodgson).	Bāi (Nepal).	Vâyu (Hodgson).	Eaglish.
Yuḥ	Ming	Меуа	Romi	53. Wife. ·
Chha chhāmā	Tā, gikba	Chuchu	Choo	54. Child.
Chhā	Tā-wa	Chu	Tāwo	55. Son.
Chhekume-chhā	Tā-mi	Chu michum	Tāmi	56. Daughter.
Roh		Ruā		57. Slave.
Khāretauwā	Byang-si-kok-ba	Ua-muk-po	Kō-duvi; vīk-pōvi	58. Cultivator.
Gothālā	Bhēra theulba	Bhera-jak-pu	Beli tūnvi	59. Shepherd.
Ishwar		Isor		60. God.
Chāppā		Bhut		61. Devil.
Nām	Nam	Nām	Nomo, numa	62. Sun.
Lā	Lā, tausaba	Lalumtu	Cholo	63. Moon.
Songer	Sorū	Sanger	Khwāmen	64. Star.
.Mi	Mi	Mi	Mē	65. Fire.
Kāwā	Pwāku	Kanku	Ti	66. Water.
Khim	Khyim	Kim	Kēm	67. House.
Ghorā	Ghōra	Ghorā	G ōḍā	68. Horse.
Piḥ · · · ·	Bing	Bhii	Gai	69. Cow.
Khe-bā	Khlicha	Khibu	Ūri	70. Dog.
Manimā	Birma	Munim	Dāna	71. Cat.
Wāpā	Āpo bā	Phu bhālyā	Lõcho khocho	72. Cock.
Hāns		Hāns	·	73. Duck.
Gadhaha	. ******	Gādhā	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	74. Ass.
Ont		Üth	••••	75. Camel.
Chhowā	Chikba	Silpu	Chichi	76. Bird.
Khātā	Diwo	Khuchā	La'la	77. Go.
Cha	Jāwo	Joni	Jāko	78. Eat.
Tuwā-ti	Niso	Mo-ni	Musche	79. Sit.

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
80. Come	Lē-li	Raā	Pherë	Ábā · · .
81. Beat	Dânghai-li	Ŗeho	Hiptē	Moktu . ·
82. Stand	Jāp-li	Thiugā .	Pōgē	Pugā · · · ·
83. Die	Si-li	Siyā	. Sīē	Siyā ·
84. Give	Pī-li	Piyang	Pī-rang-nē (to me), pirē (to anybody).	Pi ·
85. Run	Dhāp-li	Drokā	Lokte	Lukta
86. Up		Yobi	. Thō	То
87. Near	Chêngsō	Kherte	. Nētang	Chhong
88. Down		Nabi	Yō, mō	Мо
89. Far	Dūrē	Ā-lam-thā	. Mānkhā	'Māngdu
90. Before	Lāng; lāmpā	Hābi	. Tōgang	Āthum
91. Behind	Nhũ chopa,	Libi	Egang	'U-heksang'
92. Who	Hē-ti ; hāshū	Suguri	. Hā, en	'I-sā ' .' . '
93. What	Hai	Hārāburi	. The · · · · .	T-lā ' . ' . '
94. Why	Hai pā-li.	Hārāburi	. Thiang	I-juk
95. And		Ani	. Nū · . · . ·	Ikhok
96. But	Kintu-nā	Mā-ho-ke	Sang · . · . · .	Tara · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
97. If			-ilē ·	Bhanė
98. Yes	Hê	Āde	. Wā · . ·	H9-9.
99. No	A-hē	Mā-thā	. Hop	Nāknġā
100. Alas	Hai-hai	Hãe . ,	.i	'Ambi'
101. A father	Aba	Ā-pā	. Lop-thik pa	lkko bā
102. Of a father	Aba-ko	Ā-pā-ko	Lop-thik pā-ren	Ikko bā-gā
103. To a father	Abs-sng	Ā pā-kai	Lop-thik pāsīn	
104. From a father	Aba-sho	Ā-pā-dekhin	Lop-thik pā-rōū-nū .	Ikko bā-gā
105. Two fathers	Ngē-long aba	Dui ā-pā-haru .	Nechhi pā-hā, papā-si	Hichchi bā
106. Fathers	Aba galai	Ā-pā-karu ·	Pā-hā; papā-si	Bā-chi

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rāi (Nepal).	Vāyu (Hodgson).	English.
Bân-tẹ	Rāwo; pīwo	Pià	Phi	SU. Come.
Kir-te • • • •	Тепрро	Yumini	То ро	81. Beat.
Thorep-te • •	Rарро	Repmachini	Ipche	82. Stand.
Siyā · · ·		Micha	Met	83. Die.
Pi-te · · ·	Giwo	Bingā	Hāto	84. Give.
Bulth-te	Wanno	Bhulā	Lūn	85. Run.
Mikto, • • •	Hateula	Tuko	Lonkha	86. Up.
Ikhingā	Nentha	Tabu	Khe'wa	87. Near.
Muken	Gwārę, gwāyeu	Ukokai	Yonkha	88. Down.
Orotomā	Brāba	Yākakhu	Kho'lam	89. Far.
Lais-pi	Ngalla di	Lalbu	Honko	90. Before.
Dos-pi	Notha di	Yābu	Nungna	91. Behind.
Āse	Syā · · ·	Во	Sū; sūnā	92. Who.
Ūe	Māra	Ма	Mische	93. What.
Ūdohoe	Māra-ngā	Maka	Mischepā	94. Why.
Aiyāh		Kâi	•	95. And.
Mākā	Nākā	Meyo	•	96. But.
Doko	Khēdda	Tukho	sa; -nam; -phen	97. If.
Oe	Aje	À		98. Yes.
Māāḥ	Мā-ā	Munā		99. No.
Âyā		Agu		160. Alas.
Ibom pā	Ā-po	Tik-pu pu	. Ūpū	101. A father.
Ibom pā-mi	Ā-po ā	Tik-pu pu-pu	. Upū	102. Of a father.
Ibom pāng	Ā-po la	Tik-pu pu-lāi	. Upu	103. To a father,
Ibom pā-pkā	Ā-po ding	Tik-pu pu-laka	. $\hat{\mathbf{U}}$ pū khen	104. From a father.
Ngichchi pā;chi .	Ā-po daa-si	Sak-pu pu-mul .	Ūpū nakpo	105. Two fathers.
Pāa-chi .	Ā-po daa	Pu-mul	. Ūpū khāta	106. Fathers.

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson),	Thāmi (Darjeeling),	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākbā (Darjeeling),
107. Of fathers	Aba galai-ko	Ā-pā-haru-ko ,	Pā-hā-ren	Bå-chi-gå
108. To fathers	Aba galai-ēng	Ā-pā-haru-lāi . , .	Pā-hā-ren	Bā-chi
109. From fathers	Aba galai-sho	Ā-pā-haru-dekhin , .	Pā-hā-rōū-nū , . , .	Bā-chi-nung
110. A daughter	Chāmdi	Diware chā-mai	Lop-thik menchhemā sā .	Ikko metnyung-mā chiyā .
111. Of a daughter	Chāmdi-ko	Diware chā-mai-ko	Lop-thik menchhemā sā- ren.	Ikko metnyung-mā chiyā-gā
112. To a daughter	Chāmdi-ēng	Diware chā-mai-lāi	Lop-thik menchhemā sā- in.	Ikko metnyung-mā ā-chiyā
113. From a daughter .	Chāmdi-sho	Diware chā-mai-dekhin .	Lop-thik menchhemā sā- rōū-nū.	Ikko māmu-gā-mā
114. Two daughters	Ngê-long chāmdi	Dui chā-mai-pāli	Nechhi menchhemā sā-hā	Hichchi . metnyung-mā chiyā-chi.
115. Daughters	Chāmdi galai	Chā-mai-pāli	Menchhemā sā-hā	Metnyung-mā chiyā-zi
116. Of daughters .	Chāmdi galai-ko	Chā-mai-pāli-ko	Menchhemā sā-hā-ren .	Metnyung-mā chiyā-zi-gā .
117. To daughters	Chāmdi galai-ēng .	Chā-mai-pāli-lāi .	Menchhemā sā-hā-in	Māmu
118. From daughters.	Chāmdi galai-sho .	Chā-mai-pāli-dekhin.	Menchhemā sā-hā-rōū-nū .	Metnyung-mā chiyā-zi-
119. A good man	Élka wā-val	. Diware āprā mi .	Lop-thik manē nō-bā	Ikko nu-nā yāp-mi
120. Of a good man .	Ēlka wā-val-ko	Diware āprā mi-ko	Lop-thik no-ba mane-ren	Ikko nu-nā yāp-mi-gā
121. To a good man .	Ēlka wā-val-ēng .	Diware āprā mi-lāi .	Lop-thik manë nō-bā-rēn (or nō-bā-ī len).	Ikko nu-ná yáp-mi
122. From a good man	Ēlka wā-val-sho .	Diware āprā mi-dekhin	Lop-thik manē-rōūnā nō-bā	Ikko nu-nā yāp-mi-nung .
123. Two good men .	Ngé-long élka wā-val	Nis-ka āprā mi	Nechhi nō-bá(-si) manē-há	Hip-pāng nu-hā yāp-mi-chi
124. Good men.	Elka wā-val galai .	. Āprā mi-haru	Nō-bā-manē-hā	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi
125. Of good men .	. Ēlka wā-val galai-ko.	. Áprā mi-pāli-ko	Nō-bā manē-hā-ren	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-gā
126. To good men .	. Ēlka wā-val galai-ēng	. Āprā mi-pāli-kai .	Nō-bā manē hā-in	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-ngā
127. From good men.	. Elka wā-val galai-sho	Āprā mi-pāli-dekhin	Nō-bā manē-hā-rōū-nī .	Nu-hā yāp-mi-chi-nung .
128. A good woman .	Ēlka bē-val	. Diware āprā chā-mai-chā	Lop-thik ké-nō-mā men- chhemā.	Ikko nunā metneng-mā .
129. A bad boy	. Mā ēlka wā-jan .	Diware narāmro hu-chā pā		Ikko isi-nā pichchhā
130. Good women .	. Ēlka bē-val galai .	. Āprā chā-mai-chā pāli	Nō-mā-si menchhemā-sī	Nu-hā metnyung-chi
131. A bad girl	. Mā ēlka bējan	. Diware narāmro chā-mai-ch	lā Lop-thik kē-jī-mā henjā .	Ikko isi-nā metnyunge .
132. Good .	Élka	. Āprā	. Nō-bā	Nu-nā.
133. Better	. Ô-kō nhã-dong ēlka .	. Āprā	nū-lē-nō-bā	Nu-nā

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bähing (Hodgson).	· Rāi (Nepal).	Vāyu (Hodgson).	English.
Pāpā-chi-mi	Ā-po daa ā-ni	Pu-hām-po	Ūpū khāta-m	107. Of fathers.
Pā-chi-mi	Ā-po daa la	Pu-hām-lāi	Ūpā khāta	108. To fathers.
Pā-chi-pkā · · ·	Ā-po daa ding	Pu-hām-laka	Ūpū khāta khen	109. From fathers.
Ibom mimehnā	Tā-mi	Tik-pu mi-chum-chu .	Tā-mi	110. A daughter.
Ibom o-chhā-pkā (sic) .	Tā-mi ā	Tik-pu mi-chum-chu-po .	Tā-mi	111. Of a daughter.
Ibom o-chhā mimchhā-pkā (sic).	Tā-mi la	Tik-pu mi-chum-chu-lāi .	Tā-mi	112. To a daughter.
Ibom o-chhā-chi-pkā (sic).	Tā-mi ding	Tik-pu mi-chum-chu-laka .	Tā-mi khen	113. From a daughter.
Ngippo mimchhā-chi .	Tā-mi daa-si	Sak-pu mi-chum-chu-hām .	Tā-mi nang-mi	114. Two daughters.
Mimchhā-chi	Tā-mi daa	Mi-chum-chu-hām	Tā-mi khāta	115. Daughters.
Mimchhā-chi-mi	Tā-mi daa ā-ni	Mi-chum-chu-hām-pu .	Tā-mi khāta-m	116. Of daughters.
Ichhā-chi mimchhā	Tā-mi daa la	Mi-chum-chu-hām-lâi .	Tā-mi khāta	117. To daughters.
Ichhā-chi-pkā	Tā-mi daa ding	Mi-chum-chu-hām-l a ka .	Tā-mi khāta khen	118. From daughters.
Ilpo missi nopā		Tik-pu na-pu min	Noh'ka lõcho	119. A good man.
Ibom ngāli nopā		Tik-pu na-pu min-po .	Noh'ka lőcho	120. Of a good man.
Ilpo ngāli nopā		Tik-pu na-pu min-lāi .	Noh ka lõcho	121. To a good man.
Ilpo ngāli no-pi-kā		Tik-pu na-pu min-laka .	Noh'ka lõcho khen	122. From a good man.
Ngippo ngāli nopā		Sak-pu na-pu min-mul .	Noh'ka lõcho nakpo	123. Two good men.
Ngāli nop-chi		Na-pu min-mul	Noh'ka lõcho khāta	124. Good men.
Ngāli nop-chi-mi		Na-pu min-mul-po	Noh'ka lõcho khāta-m .	125. Of good men.
Ngāli nop-hām		Na-pu min-mul-lāi	Noh'ka lõcho	126. To good men.
Ngāli nop-chi-kā		Na-pu min-mul-laka .	Noh ka lãcho khen	127. From good men.
Ilpo mimchhā ngāli nopā .		Tik-pu na-pu mi-chum .	Neh'ka mescho	128. A good woman.
Ilpo wachchha ngali ipa .		Tik-po ja-a-du chuchu .	Māng noh'kā tāwo	129. A bad boy.
Ngàli nopā mimchhā-chi	*****	Na-pu mi-chum	Noh'ka mescho khāta .	130. Good womer.
Ilpo mimehhā ngāli ipā .		Tik-pu ja-a-du mi-chum-chu	Māng noh'ka tāmi	131. A bad girl.
Nopā	Neuba	Na-pu	Noh'ka	132. Good.
Ngāli nopā	Yem ding neuba .	Jhan na-pu	Wathim khen noh'ka .	133. Better.

English.		Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thâmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
134. Best		Sogiming-ko nhā-dong ēlka	Jhan āprā	Kāk-nū-lē (chhenā) nō-bā	Uchu nu-nā
135. High .		Dhāngā	Ālamgā	Kēm-bā	Ket-nā
36. Higher .		Ō-kō nhã-dong dhángã .	Jhan ālamg ā	Chhenā (more) kēm-bā .	Ket-nā-hi
.37. Highest		Sogiming-ko nhādong dhāngā.	Ajhar ālamgā	. Kāk-nūlē kēm-bā	Nabhaudācha ketnā .
38. A horse .		Õyhā	Diware ghorā	Lop-thik ön	Ikko on .
39. A mare .		Thangani õyhä	Diware ghoṛi	Lop-thik ön kū-m-mā .	Ikko on i-mā-chhā .
40. Horses .		Õyhā galai	Ghoṛā-pāli	Ōn-hā	On•zi
41. Mares .	•	Thangani õyhā galai.	Ghoṛi-pāli	On kū-m-mā-hā	On i-mā-chhā-chi .
42. A bull .	•	Dānkhā piā	Diware pāpā-syā .	Pit sandrīā (a black bull with red markings).	Ikko pik
43. A cow .		Mahani piā	Diware māmā-syā .		Ikko-pik-mā
44. Bulls .		Dānkhā piā galai	Pāpā-syā-pāli	Pit sandrīā-hā	Pik-chi
45. Cows .		Mahani pīā galai	Māmā-syā-pāli.	Pīp-mā-hā	Pik-mā-chi
46. A dog .		Dānkhā khīā	Diware kuchu	Lop-thik kōchō	Ikko kuchu -mā .
47. A bitch .		Mahani khiā	Diware kuchu-mi	Lop-thik kōchō-mā	Ikko kuti-mā
48. Dogs .	•	Dānkhā khīā galai	Kuchuwā pāli	Kāchā-hā	Kuchu-mā-zi
49. Bitches .		Mahani khiā galai	Kuchumā pāli	Kōchō-mā-hā	Kuti-mā-zi
50. A he goat.		Eēchā	Diware boke churi	Lop-thik mēndak yārim-bā	Ikko ippā chhā .
51. A female goat		Mahani eēchā	Diware māmā churi	Lop-thik mēndak-mā .	Ikko imā chhā .
52. Goats .		Eēchā galai	Churi-pāli	Mēndak-hā	Menthimā-chi
53. A male deer			Diware dārhe ārki	Lop-thik pēngwā kū-m-bā	Ikko kissā darhe .
54. A female deer	• •		Diware māmā ārki	Lop-thik pēngwā kū-m-mā	Ikko kissā umā .
155. Deer .			Ārki-pāli	Pēngwā-hā	Kissā-chi
56. I am .		Kā jēhi-kā	Gai hok-ngā-du	Angā wā-ā	Kāi
57. Thou art .		Nā jēhi-nā	Nā hok-ngā-du	Khenē k'-wā	Ing-khi nākkā
158. He is .		Wā jēbi	Begāle hoddu	Khunë wā	U-lihii
59. We are .		Kyēl jēhi-kyēl	Ni-hoki-du	Ānī ā-wā, ānīgē wā-igē	Āning nā-hāi
60. You are .		Nyēl jēhi-nyēl	Nãng hotnā-du	Kheni k'-wā-i .	Ing-khi nā-k ū

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Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rāi (Nepal).	Vāyu (Hodgson).	English.
Nopā	Haupe ding neuba .	Jhan na-pu	Sabim khen noh'ka	134. Best.
Urorepā	Lāba	Rippu	Jengta	135. High.
Hosongā urorepā .	Yem ding lāba	Jhan rippu	Wathim khen jongta .	136. Higher.
Jhan-jhan urorepā .	Haupe ding laba	Jhan rippu	Sabim khen jongta	137. Highest.
Ibom ghorā	Āpo ghōra	Tik-pu ghorā	Gōḍā	138. A horse.
Ibom ghori	Āmo ghōra	Tik-pu ghori	Mes'cho gōḍā	139. A mare.
Ghorā-chi	Āpo ghōra das	Ghorā-hām	Goḍā khāta	140. Horses.
Ghori-chi	Āmo ghōra daa	Ghori-hām	Mes'cho gōḍā khāta	141. Mares.
Ibom goru	Āpo bing	Tik-pu sāryā	Lõcho gai	142. A bull.
Ibom pi	Āmo bing	Tik-pu bhi	Gai	143. A cow.
Bāsāhā-chi	Āpo bing daa	Sãryā-hām	Lõcho gai khāta	144. Bulls.
Pi-chi	Āmo bing das ,	Bhi-mul	Gai khāta	145. Cows.
Ibom khebā	Āpo khlicha	Tik-pu khibu	Lõcho ūri	146. A dog.
Ibom khepchi	Āmo khlīcha	Tik-pu khibu me	Mes'cho ŭri	147. A bitch.
Khep-chi	Āpo khlicha daa	Khibu mul	Lõcho üri khāta	14S. Dogs.
Khepchi-chi	Āmo khlīcha daa	Khibu-me-mul	Mes'cho ūri khāta	149. Bitches.
Ibom chhāngārā-pā	Āpo swongāra	Tik-pu chhangur bokā .	Lõcho cheli	150. A he goat.
lbom chhāngārā-mā	Āmo swongār a	Tik-pu chhangur	Mes'cho cheli	151. A female goat,
Chhāngārā-chi	Swongara daa	Chhangur-bokā-mul	Cheli khāta	152. Goats.
Ibom khissi däre	Āpo kīsi	Tik-pu darhya mirga .		153. A male deer.
Ibom khis om-mā	Åmo kisi ,	Tik-pu mirga me		154. A female deer.
Khis-chi	Kīsi daa	Mirga-mul	Kēchho	155. Deer.
Kongā tuo	Bwang-nga	Ang mo-tā	Nō-ngo-m	156. I am.
Âm tuwe	Bwāng-ngē	Ānā mo-tā	Nō-nu-m	157. Thou art.
Khungko tuwe	Bwāng	Um mo-tu	Νδ-ті	158. He is.
Kei tuwe	Bwāk-kā	Ang-ku muktā	No ke-m	159. We are.
Ān tuwe	Bwāng-ni	Āng (sic)-mul ā-mo-bi-ni .	Nō-ne-m	160. You are.

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
61. They are	Ū-bal jēhi	Dhā-mā pāli hod-du	Khūnchhì mē-wā	I-khā-zi nāekhā
62. I was	Kā higā-hi-kā	Gai hok-ngā-thiyo	Angā wāyang	Kā wāeng-nā
63. Thou wast	Nā higā-hi-nā	Nā hoknā-du-thiyo	Khenē k'-wā-yē	Ing-khi wāe-gā-nā
64. He was	Wā higā-hi	Dhā hod-du-thiyo	Khūnē wā-yē	Hitnā wāe-na .
65. We were	Kyēl higā-hi-kyēl	Ni hoki-du-thiyo	Ānī ā-wā-yē, ānīgē wā-igē	Āning-khi wainghā .
66. You were	Nyēl higā-hi-nyēl	Ningwai hodni-du-thiyo .	Kheni k'-wā-i	Inning-khik waiga-hā
67. They were	Ū-bal higā-hi	To-bāngai hodni-du-thiyo .	Khūnchhī mē-wā-yē	I-khā-zi waeha-zi
68. Be	Jē	Thaa ,	Wā-yē, pōk-hē	Leksā
69. To be	Jēng-li	Thāsā	Wā-mā ; pōng-mā	Wetnā
70. Being	Jēng-katang	Thātāle	Kē-wā-pā, kē-pōng-pā	We-nu-chā
71. Having been	Jēng-tēng	Jet-long-tā-le	Wā-yē-ang; pōk-sē-ang .	Leksā-gā-hung .
72. I may be		Gai thāngnā du	Angā pōng-mā sūk-tū-ng .	Kā leng-me-ngā-nā .
73. I shall be	Kā jênkā	Gai hoknā du	Angā wā-ā	Kā leng-ngā
74. I should be		Gai-kāi thā-ngā du	Angā wā·ā	Kū yung-mā-leng-di
75. Beat	Dāng-hai	Ŗeho	Hip-tē	Mokmā
76. To beat • • •	Dāng-hai-li	Ŗe-munā	Hip-mā	Mok-mā-gā
77. Beating	Dāng-hai-katang	Rehunā	Hip-tū-ang	Mokmā-ngā
78. Having beaten	Dang-hai-tēng	Reko-dumtole	Hip-tū-ang	Mok-tu-kā-hong .
79. I beat	Kā dāng-hai-khi-kā	Ge rehunu	Angā hip-tū-ng (him, and	Mok-neng .
S0. Thou beatest	Nā dāng-hai-khi-nā	Ne rehunā-du	so also in Nos. 180-184). Khenë k'-hip-tû	Ing-khi-ngā mok-tu-gā
81. He beats	Wā dāng-hai-khi	Dhāi rehu-du	Khūnē hip-tū	U-khi-ngāng mok-tū
82. We beat	Kyēl dāng-hai-khi-kyēl .	Ni ŗe-sā	Ānī ā-hip-tū-m, ānī-gē hip-	Kā-ni-ngā mok-tπ-nu
83. You beat	Nyël dāng-hai-khi-nyêl .	Nai reho	tū-m-bɨ. Khenī k'-hip-tū-m	Ing-khi-ngā mok-tu .
84. They beat	Ū-bal dāng-hai-khi	Dhā-bang-e ṛehu-du	Khūnchhī mě-hip-tū.	U-jing-khik-nga mokka
85. I beat (Past Tense) .	Kā dāng-hai-hi-kā		Angā hip-nē (thee, and so	·····
86. Thou beatest (Past	Nā dāng-hai-hi-nā		also in Nos. 186-190). Khenë k'-hip-sing	*****
Tense)	Wā dāng-hai-hi		Khūnē k'-hip-tē	

Khambu (Darjee	eling).		Bāhing (Hodg	gson).		Rāi (Nepal).		Väyu (Hodgson).		English.
Khas tuwe .	•	•	Bwāng-me .			. U-mul-hām mo-ta .	•	Nō-me-m	•	161. They are.
Kong tuo .		•	Bwāktī	•	•	Āng monga		Nō-sung-mi	•	162. I was.
Ām tuwāyo .	•		Bwāktē	•	•	Ānā mom		No-nu-m		163. Thou wast.
Kho tuwā .	•		Bwäktā	•	•	Um mom	•	No-mi	•	164. He was.
Ke tuwe .	•		Bwāktāko .	•		Āng-ku mukā	•	Nō-keng-ni		165. We were.
Ãn-ni tuwani .	•	•	Bwāktāni .	•		Ân-ni ā-mo-nim .	•	Nō-ne-m		166. You were.
Khas tuwā	•		Bwāktāme .	•		U-mul-hām mom .		Nō-me-m		167. They were,
Ngāli nota	٠	\cdot	Bwākko	•		Chhuā-nu		Nō		168. Be.
Chhuwä .		\cdot	Bwākcho .	•	•	Chhuā-nu lāi	•	Nōt'-mung	•	169. To be.
Chhuwānā .	•	$\cdot $	Bwāng-na .			Chhuk-thing-ta .		Not'-he	•	170. Being.
Chhuwā-khātnā	•	•	Bwāktāko .		•	Chhu-khu-ka		Not'-not'-hā	•	171. Having been.
Kong chhuonā.	•	$\cdot $				Ang chhu-nu chāp-ta	•	******		172. I may be.
Kong tuohola .	•	•	Bwāng-ngā .	•	٠	Ang chhup-tu	•	Nō-ngo-m	•	173. I shall be.
Kong chhuonā.	•	. (Gō bwāk-cho dyum		٠	Ang chhup-ta		*** ***		174. I should be.
Ker-te	•	. .	Teuppo	•	•	Yom-dā		То'ра	•	175. Beat.
Keram-lagi .	•		Teupcho	•		Yomom		To'mung	•	176. To beat.
Ker-mā	•		•••			Yom-jata		Top'-he		177. Beating.
Ker-o-nā .	•	, <u>[</u>	Геир-tā-ko .	•		Yom-du-ka	•	Top-top-hā		178. Having beaten.
Kongā kero .	•	, <u> </u>	Γeub-ū	•	•	Ang-ā yām-ta		To'-mi		179. I beat.
Ānā kero .	•	. 1	Γeub∙ī	•	•	Ãnā-ā yam-thatis .		To'-mi	•	180. Thou beatest.
Kho-sāp kere .	•	7	Геиb-ā	•		Um-ā yam-tha-ta .		Toʻ-mi		181. He beats.
Keiya kerang .		T	Геир-kā .	•	•	U-mul-hām-ā (sic) yom-t	i-	To'-pe-m		182. We beat.
nā ker-te .		Т	Ceum-ni	•		Ānā-ā yām-ta		Top-ne-m		183. You beat.
Thachā kechino		T	eum-me .	•	•	U-mul-hām-ā yom-tinim		To'-me-m • •	•	184. They beat.
******		T	eup-tong .	•	•	(Go yāl-to ^l)		To'-pung-mi	.]	S5. I beat (Past Tense).
•••••		Т	Ceup-teu.	•	•	(Gā-ni yāl-ni)		To'-pu-m	. 1	S6. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
••••		T	Ceup-tā	•	•	(Gukāgā yālstu) .		To'-pu-m • •	. 1	187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.		Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
188. We beat (Past Ten	se)	Kyêl dāng-hai-hi-kyêl .		Ānīgē hip-āsīgē	
189. You beat (Past Ter	se)	Nyêl dāng-hai-hi-nyēl .		Khenī k'-kip-āsī (your-	
190. They beat (Past Ter	ıse)	Ū-bal dāng-hai-hi	·····	Khŭnchhī k'-mē-hip-tē	
191. I am beating .	•	Kā elāng dāng-hai-khi-kā .	Ge rehundu	Angā hip-ā-sing (myself) .	Kā mok-mā-ngā sengā-nā .
192. I was beating .		Kā lāmpāng dāng-hai-khi-kā	Ge rehundu nähundu .	Angā hip-tā-ng (him) .	Kā-ngā mok-mā-ng ā syāng- nā.
193. I had beaten .		Kā dāng-hai-hi-kā	Ge rehundu	Angā hip-tū-ng bānēbā .	Kā-ngā mok-tu-ngā
194. I may beat .			Ge redna	Angā hip-mā sūk-nē (I can beat thee).	Kā mok-tā hesung
195. I shall beat .	•	Kā dāng-hai-āng-kā	Ge reunu	Angā hip-tū-ng (him) .	Kā mok-twāng-ngā
196. Thou wilt beat .	•	Nā dāng-hai-āng-nā		Khenē k'-hip-ā (me)	
197. He will beat .	•	Wā dāng-hai-āng	•	Khānē hip-ā (me)	
198. We shall beat .	•	Kyēl dāng-hai-āng-kyēl .		Ānīgē hip-ā-sīgē (thee) .	
199. You will beat .	•	Nyēl dāng-hai-āng-nyēl .		Khenī k'-hip-āsī (yourselves)	
200. They will beat .		Ū-bal dāng-hai-āng		Khūnchhī k'-mē-hip (thee)	
201. I should beat .		····	Gai-ke reke mai-du	Angā hip-tū-ng	Kã chā mok-twāng-nā
202. I am beaten .		Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chā-khi-kā	Gai-kai rengāng	Angā hip-ā	Kā mok-tā chāeng-nā
203. I was beaten .	•	Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chā-hi-kā	Gai-kai re-ngā-do thiyo .	Angă hip-tang	Kā mok-tā chāe-tā-sāng-nā
204. I shall be beaten	•	Kā dāng-hai-nēn-chāngkā .	Gai-kai resā chāhi du .	Angā hip-ā	Kā tembuk chāwāng•na lok-pe.
205. I go		Kā hadē-khi-kā	Gai yā-ngā-du	Angā pēk-ā	Kā khek-ngā
206. Thou goest .		Nā hadē-khi-nā	Nang yā-nā-duk-lā	Khenë k'-pëg	Ing-khi khekkā
207. He goes		Wā hadē-khi	Dhāyā-du	Khūnē pēg	Ū-khi khee-nā
208. We go		Kyēl hadē-khi-kyēl		Āni ā-pēg, ānīgē pēgigē .	
209. You go		Nyēl hadē-khi-nyēl		Khenī k'-pēg-ī	
210. They go		Ū-bal hadē-khi		Khünchhi mē-pēg	~
211. I went	•	Kā hadē-hi-kā	Gai yāng-ngāng	Angā pēgang	Kā kheeng-nā
212. Thou wentest .	•	Nā hadē-hi-nā.	Nāng yā-ngâng	Kheni k'-pēgē, or k'-pē	Ing-khi khyā-kā-nā
213. He went	•	Wā hadē-hi	Dhā yā-hān	Khūní pēgē, or pē	U-khi khyā-nā
214. We went	•	Kyêl hadê-hi-kyêl		Ānī ā-pē, ānīgē pēgigē	

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rāi (Nepal).	Vāyu (Hodgson).	English.
	Teup-tā-ko	. (Goku yāl-to-ko)	To'-pi-keng-mi	188. We beat (Past Tense).
	Teup-tā-ni	. (Gā-ni yāl-ni)	Tom-ne-m	189. You beat (Past Tense).
	Teup-tā-me	. (Gumikāgā yāl-di)	To'-po-me-m	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Kongā ker-tong tuwo .	Teup-sõngo bwäng-ngā	. Ang-ā yom-thata		191. I am beating.
Kongā ker-tong tuwāā .	Teup-sõngo bwāk-tī .	. Āng-ā yom-thudu		192. I was beating.
Kongā keru	Tenp-tōng	. Ångā yem-dum-thiyo .		193. I had beaten.
Kongā keru-nā	Teumne chabū .	. Ang-ā yommi chaptahala .		194. I may beat.
Kongā kereyānā	Teub-ū	. Āng-ā yom-tu	То'-ті	195. I shall beat.
,	Teub-ĭ	. (Gānā yālnā)	To'-mi	196. Thou wilt beat.
	Teub-ā ,	. (Gukāgā yālsa)	To'-mi	197. He will beat.
	Teup-kā	. (Go-kāg-ā yal-ku) .	To'-pe-m	198. We shall beat.
	Teum-ni	. (Gā-ni yāl-ni)	Top-ne-m	199. You will beat.
*****	Teum-me	. (Gumi-kāg-ā yālsā)	To'-me-m	200. They will beat.
Kong keram chhuwe	Gō teupcho dyum .	Āng-ā yom-ta		201. I should beat.
Kong keram tuu	Teumyi	. Āng-ā yom-simidoitu .	To'-mu-m	202. I am beaten.
Kong keram too	Teuptī	. Āng-ā a-yom-nu	Top-sung-mi	203. I was beaten.
Kong keram tuyoholā .	Teumyī	. Āng-ā a-yum-ta mihui .	To'-mu-m	204. I shall be beaten.
Kong khā-to	Dī-ngā	. Āng khus-ta	Lā-ngo-m	205. T go.
Ān khā-te	Dī-yē	. Ānā khus-ta	Lā'-la-m ,	206. Thou goest.
Kho khā-te	Dī	. Um khus-thing-tu	Lā'-la-m	207. He goes.
••••	Dī-kā	. (Goe lākshi¹)	Lā'-ke-m	208. We go.
	Di-ni	. (Gāni lawni)	Lā-ne-m	200. You go.
	Dī-me	. (Gumikāgā lawmi)	Lā-me-m	210. They go.
Kong khā-to	Dī-ti	. Āngā khuchum-thiyo .	Lā-sung-mi	211. I went.
Ān khā-te-yo	Dî-tē	. Ānā khuchum-thiyo	Lā'-la-m · · ·	212. Thou wentest.
Kho khā-to	Dī-tā ,	. Um klinchum-thiyo	La'-le-ra	213. He wert.
åe: åos	Dī-k-tā-ko	. (Go-ku lok-to-ko ¹) .	Lā'-ki-keng-mi	214. We went.

English.	Dhīmāl (Hodgson).	Thāmi (Darjeeling).	Limbu (Nepal).	Yākhā (Darjeeling).
215. You went	Nyēl hadē-hi-nyēl		Kheni k'-pēg-i	
216. They went	Ū-bal hadē-hi	······	Khūnchhī mē-pē	
217. Go	Hadē	Yāā	Pēgē	Khyā
218. Going	Hade-katang	Yenchhā	Pēg-lō-pōt	Khep-ma-ngā
219. Gone	Hade-kā	Yāhān	Pē	Khyā-nā
220. What is your name?.	Hai ming nang-ko?	Nān-ko nāme hārā ?	Khenē k'-ming hen?	In ning ilā?
221. How old is this horse?	******	Hāni theare ghorā thā? .	Kên ôn ākhen tong-bē yô- bē?	Na on inkhok thāppā-lā?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?		Kā'-ining Kashmir hāni ā-lam thā ?	Kō-yō-nū Kashmir ākhen māng-bē?	Nā-nung Kasmir inkho māng-du-nā-lā?
223. How many sons are there in your father's	800 100	Nāng-ko āpā-ko nim-te chā- pāli hāni holdu ?	Khenë ke-m-bā-ren kū-him- mō embechhā sā ākhen	Ombā-gā u-bāng-be inkhol metnyung-ba chiyā wa
house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	*** ***	Yāng ālam thāā yang-ngang	mē-wā ? Āin angā māngkhā lang khēgang.	ha-chi? Ka hen mang-du-lo lāmāng nā.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	****	Gai-ko u-chyā ā-pā-ko chā- ko bore dhā-ko chāmai nāmā thāhān.		Ā-gā āphāngā chiyā-gā u bihā u-ngā-nu (?) leksā
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	·····	nama thanan. Nim-te ubha ghoṛā-ko zin hoddu.	nūsā-rē kū-bīhā pōk-sē. Him-mō phōdang-bā ōn-nīlē chīnen pōt.	nā. Pāng-be put-nā ong-g yupmānā wait-nā.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	······	Topu lukushā-te zin chhuho	Ön jongthū chīnen phōt-chē	U-mising-be yupmāns thāksu (or yuksu).
228. I have beaten his son with rany stripes.		To-ko chā-kai chābuke āī rehunu.	Angā khellē kū-sā sītot khēp hip-tū-vg.	Kā-ngā uchchya-go korlā ngā pyāk mok-tu-ngā.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.		Dhāi hiw dani-te syā-meshā jahu-du.	Khūnā yakēk killē kū- jongthū pit-sāwat-hā kāmūsi.	Hunnā kungu song-be bastu-chi sopmā-ngā seb
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.		Dhā dhā rukhā-ko pole-te ghera chiri-te lundu huddu.	Õn nile kū-jongthū vūk-tū-	nā (?). Yo singā u-lāng-be on song be yung-yung-wa-nā.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.		Dhā-ko būbū to-ko humi bhandā aglo hoddu.	Kū-nūsā menchhemā-nūlē kū-nūsā embechhā kēmbā wā.	U-kā nuncha wemphā hok- chencha inchhā-mechchhā ket-nā (?).
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	••••	To-ko mole nisrupe āṭh anā	Khūnē kū-mēlung yāng nechhī ang kūkhēlē wā.	U-gā u-men yāng hichi hang njāphelek (?).
233. My father lives in that small house.		Gai-ko ā-pā ū che nim-te hoddu.	Angā a-m-bā nākhen bim chuk-pā-mō yūng.	Āppā yo-nā mik-nā pāng-be yung-me-nā.
134. Give this rupee to him		Kā rupe to-kai piko	Kön yäng-nin näkhen pi- rem-mē.	Nā-khā yāng hitnā pi
235. Take those rupees from him.		Tyo rupe dhā-ini rāho .	Khen yaug-hā khūnē-ō-nù phētemmē.	Hitnā-nung i-khā yāng-hā aptu.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.		To-kā āprā-tini reho ani to- kai shāk-pa-e chhiho.	Khen-nin charik hip-temmē- ang sīkī-hā-rē khēkhemmē.	Hitna ujumma (?) mok-tu ikhong-khi-ba-nga thundu
237. Draw water from the well.		Kuwāin pāngku kāyo .	Wōdumpōkwā-ōnū chūā-tin (or -nin) lōtē.	Pokhāri-bāng māng-chuwā taksu.
238. Walk before me	••• •	Gai-ko hābi-te chāyo .	Angā ā-togēō langkhēgē .	Ā-gā aglio āmā
239. Whose boy comes behind you?		Nā-ko libite su-ko hu-chā rā-du ?	Khené k-égang āti-lē kū-sā phen?	Ungā heksāng-be isā-gā uchchyā āp-mā-ngā set-nā?
240. From whom did you buy that?		Nāya to kutaini kinai-mang?	Khen lä-lö-nü khenë kingnü?	Isā-bongā inu kā-nā?
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.		To dese-ko diware dokane dekhin.	Pangphē pasalyā-ōnū ingu- ng-bā.	Tem-be-nā ikko toktok-pā bangā.

Khambu (Darjeeling).	Bāhing (Hodgson).	Rãi (Nepal).	V āyu (H odgson) .	English.	
	Dī-n-tā-ni	(Gāni lawmubāsi)	Lā-ne-m	215. You went.	
******	Dī-m-tā-me	(Gumikāgā lamdi)	Lā-me-m	216. They went.	
Khātte	Dīwo	Khuchā	Lā'-la	217. Go.	
Khā-to	Dība	Khus-thing-tā		218. Going.	
Khā-tā		Khuchū		219. Gone.	
Âm ning uwe?		Ā-nā mā-wa?		220. What is your name?	
Angko ghora dek barkbā kae?		Tam ghorā hita bhurha mota?		221. How old is this horse?	
Ekkā Kashmir dei to-me?		Tam-bi-ka Kashmir hita yākā gota?		222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	
Âm-pā-m khim-pi deppoye wāchchhā tuwe?		Ā-pa-po kim-bi hita lang- chu-mul mota?		223. How many sons are there in your father's	
Ese konga oro bāīpā lām dumo.		Āng āmun duma lam-thi-yo		house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	
O-bongkā u-chhā ām-chhā- lo khamlo nechho-lo		Wa-pho-po chu-kāi um-po wā-mi-chum-po biha		225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	
biyā chhuwā. Khim-pi omlopā ghorāng zin tuwe.		chhuka. Kim-ghobu wampu ghora- po kathi gota.		226. In the house is the saddle of the white	
Am-dos-to zin lochhah-te .	··· ···	Um-po chhumru-bi kathi tu		horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back.	
Kho-m chhā uroto tiyā keru.	•••••	Um-po u-chu äng-ā dama kona yom-du.		228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	
Khosāā bastu kompito chāre-muyo.	·· ···	Yākām-a rip-pu pākhā-bi bhi-maisi-mul jolaimi.		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	
Mungko sichham dokpu ghorā thenpikā tuchāe.		Yākām ghorā cho-bi yākām su lim-bi mo-jata.		230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	
Am nechhe-pkā mimchhā- pkā nechho dungrepe.		Um-p) wā-mi-chum likandu um-po wā-lanchu rippu		231. His brother is taller than his sister.	
Mungkomkā molingis-rong āduli dungdeta.		mota. Tam-po mul sak-pu soju rek-pu ânā me gota.		232. The price of that is two rupees and a	
O-pā chimā khim-pi tuwe .		Wa-pu yākam pidam kim-bi mo-ta		half. 253. My father lives in that small house.	
Ongko rong nā-ko pi-te .		Tam soju yākām bi		234. Give this rupee to him.	
Rong nāko-pkā kholong bāi-te.		Mom soju-mul yākām lum- buka pi-chi-ni.		235. Take those rupees from him.	
Mungko ngālinota ker-te ribowā thupte.		Yākam duma yom-du riba- ā pudā.	•••••	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	
Kuwāp-kā kāwo up-te		Inār-laka kanku lātā .		237. Draw water from the well.	
O-laiis-pi lām-duwā-te .		Wa-lal-bi lam-thiyā		238. Walk before me.	
Ās-me ām-chhā e-dos-pa bān-tong tuwe?		Ā-yo-yo bi pik-pu a-ho-po		239. Whose boy comes be-	
Āna mungko ās-pi khe-tu ?		Mom-a-bo-bi-ka ā-kidu? .		240. From whom did you buy that?	
Tel-pā-kā dokān-pikā .	•••••	Del-bim tik-pu patya-la-ka		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	



COMPLEX PRONOMINALIZED LANGUAGES.

WESTERN SUB-GROUP.

Most Tibeto-Burman languages spoken in Western Nepal and still further to the west are dialects of Tibetan. On and about the ethnographic watershed between Tibetan and Aryan there is dotted a series of small dialects which are of a different nature. They are mainly of a Tibeto-Burman stamp, but besides, they have those characteristic features which have been mentioned in connexion with the pronominalized languages of Nepal.

The dialects in question are found in the North of Almora, in Kanawar and in Kangra, Lahul, and Chamba.

The most characteristic dialect of this group is the so-called Kanāwarī, spoken in Kanawar. We there find more traces of the influence of a non-Tibeto-Burman substratum than in any other Himalayan dialect. This state of affairs is certainly in part due to the fact that I have been fortunate enough to secure the assistance of the Revd. J. Bruske, who has prepared an admirable list of Standard Words and Phrases for the purposes of this Survey.

Mr. Bruske's list makes it, so far as I can see, almost certain that the old language, the influence of which can still be traced in the Kanāwarī dialect, must have belonged to the Mundā family. I shall draw attention to the principal facts of importance.

The Muṇḍā languages possess a characteristic set of consonants, the so-called semi-consonants. They are formed in the same way as the hard unaspirated consonants, but the enunciation is checked before the air passes out from the point of contact between the organs of speech engaged in the pronunciation of the consonant. These checked sounds have been represented by k', ch', t', p', respectively. Similar sounds appear to exist in Kanāwarī, for in Mr. Bruske's list we find the word yunék', sun, where the final k is said to be only half pronounced. In the same way a checked t' exists in Manchātī, where I have found the form tot', to be, with the final t' half pronounced. The Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, who has lately taken up the study of Kanāwarī, has kindly informed me that such semi-consonants are apt to be replaced by the corresponding soft sound, when their pronunciation is emphasized, just as is the case in the Muṇḍā languages.

Higher numbers are counted in twenties as in the Munda languages; thus, nish $nizz\bar{a}\bar{u}$ sai, two twenties ten, fifty.

The personal pronouns have three numbers, and there are double forms of the dual and plural of the first person, just as is the case in Muṇḍā. Thus g^a , I; $nish\bar{\imath}$, I and he; $k\acute{a}shang$, I and thou; $ning\acute{a}n$, I and they; $k\acute{s}hang$, I and you.

The most interesting feature of Kanāw^arī grammar is the verb. The subject can be indicated by adding pronominal suffixes, viz. g for the first and n for the second person. In a similar way a suffix ch is added if the object is of the first or second person. Compare the practice of Muṇḍā languages.

The details will be found in the ensuing pages. In this place it will be sufficient to mention that the characteristic features just mentioned are not Tibeto-Burman, while they are in thorough agreement with Munda grammatical principles.

Kanāshī is the dialect spoken by a small tribe in the Bias valley. It is apparently closely related to Kanāwarī, though it makes a less complex impression.

A similar remark holds good with regard to the dialects spoken in Manchat in British Lahul and the adjoining parts of the Chamba State, and on the banks of the river Chandra. They will be dealt with under the heads of Manchāṭī, Chamba Lāhuļī and Ranglōī, respectively. With regard to Chamba Lāhuļī, new and good materials have been brought forward by the Revd. T. Grahame Bailey.

The Rangloī dialect connects Manchāṭī with Bunán, the dialect spoken on the banks of the river Bhaga. The Revd. H. A. Jaeschke, when mentioning the Bunán dialect in a paper published in the year 1865, stated that it was closely connected with Kanāwarī. The same holds good at the present day, though the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are not sufficient for a full sketch of the dialect.

Connected dialects are further spoken in the north-west of Almora, where we find four dialects which will be dealt with under the heads of Rangkas, Dārmiyā, Chaudāngsī and Byāngsī, respectively. They are closely related, and more especially, the so-called Chaudāngsī and Byāngsī are almost one and the same dialect.

In all of them we find the same tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by means of a pronominal suffix added to the verb. Compare Chaudāngsī $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest, where n is the suffix of the second person. The corresponding suffix of the first person is g. Compare the suffixes $ng\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$ in the eastern sub-group.

The Almora dialects still present another characteristic feature which may be worth mentioning in this connexion, viz. the frequent use of reduplication in verbal bases. Compare Chaudāngsī $k\bar{u}-k\bar{o}r-t\bar{a}$, brought; $syung-t\bar{a}$ and $sy\bar{u}-syung-t\bar{a}$, made. The latter example shows that the reduplication is not necessary to the form. It apparently only intensifies the meaning. We can therefore perhaps compare the reduplication in Muṇḍā languages which is used in the same way. Compare Santālī dal, to strike; da-dal, to strike hard.

Further details will be found under the head of the different dialects.

The close connexion existing between all these forms of speech will be at once apparent from an inspection of the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff. The short table which follows/registers some striking instances of coincidence:—

	Kanāw ^e rī.	Kanashī.	Manchātī.	Bunán.	Rangkas.	Dārmiyā.	Chaudangsī.	Byāngsī.
1	it	it	idi	tiki	tā kā	tākō	tig	tig
2	nish	nish	(juţ)	nyis	nisī	nisū	nis	nisī
4	pü	pu	$p^{ar{i}}$	pi	pi pi	pi	p i	pi
7	stish	•••	nyij	nyizh i	nhis ī	n īs ū	nīs	nīs
Ear	(kanang)	rad	reța	retsi	rach	racho	rach	rach
Far	vark	(dur)	wai	wai	hvānm	vānam	vānam	vānam
Field	ri	rhe	rhi	rig	rai	rē	rī	rai
Horse	rang	(ghora)	rhang	shrangs	rhã	rāng	räng	rāng
Water	ti	ti	ti	so-ti	ti.	ti	ti	ti
Water	ti .	ti	ti	so-ti	ļ ti	ti	ti]

The last word in the table is ti, water. According to Jaeschke this word also occurs as a loan-word in Tibetan. If it is not originally an Indo-Chinese word it might perhaps be compared with Mundā dak, Khmēr $d\bar{\imath}k$, etc., water.

The dialect spoken by the wild inhabitants of Askot Malla is called Janggali, i.e. jungle-speech. It will be dealt with in connexion with the other Almora dialects, though it does not belong to the same class. The reason is that the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey are so corrupt that it is impossible to say anything for certain about the affiliation of the dialect.

KANĀWARĪ.

Kanāw²rī is the name of the dialect or dialects spoken in the Sutlej Valley from the junction of that river with the Spiti stream. The dialect is also known under the name of Tibarskad. In lower Kanawar it is said to be locally known under the names of Milchang or Milchanang, and Malhesti.¹

The number of speakers was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 13,099. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 19,525, of whom 19,493 were returned from Bashahr.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kanāwarī will be printed below. The first specimen is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, for which I am indebted to the Revd. Grahame Bailey. I only received it when the Kanāwarī section had been corrected for printing, and it has not, therefore, been possible to make full use of it for the grammatical sketch. It represents the central dialect of Kanāwarī, and, in most particulars, it corroborates the conclusions drawn from the forms occurring in the list. The second specimen is the statement of a witness. It has not been prepared with sufficient knowledge of the language, and is very incorrect. It has been forwarded both in Devanagari and in transliteration. The two texts, however, often differ, and some passages are only contained in one of them. I have, however, not ventured to correct the spelling. Where the texts differ, I have when possible adopted the spelling which agrees with that followed in the list of words. The list itself has been very carefully prepared by the Revd. J. Bruske, of Chini, and, according to the Revd. T. Grahame Bailey, it represents the dialect spoken in Central Bashahr. It is so full and complete that it is almost possible to give a sketch of Kanāwarī grammar based on it alone. I have incorporated all the forms occurring in the list in the grammatical notes. On the other hand I have only reproduced the principal forms in the printed list on pp. 532 and ff.

Some additional lists have been forwarded from the district. They have not, however, been of much use. They mostly agree with the specimens, and they do not give any idea of the complicated system of Kanāwarī grammar. The fact is worth mentioning because it shows how careful we must be in using the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey. It is quite possible and even probable that good materials, such as Mr. Bruske's list, would show that neighbouring dialects such as, e.g., the various dialects of Almora, possess a system of grammatical forms as richly developed as does Kanāwarī.

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Cunningham, J. D.,—Notes on Moorcroft's Travels in Ladakh, and on Gerard's Account of Kunāwar, including a general description of the latter district. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xiii, Part i, 1844, pp. 172 and ff., 223 and ff. Contains vocabularies, Kunawaree, etc.

¹ The Revd. T. Grahame Bailey informs me that Milchang or Milchanang is evidently Min-chhān or Min-chhānāng, names, or possibly nicknames, given to Kanāw^{*}rī by Kochi speakers. Tibarskad stands for Thebör-skadd, a name or nickname given by speakers of ordinary Kanāw^{*}rī to the dialect spoken far east in Kanawar just before the Tibetan area begins. This dialect is not intelligible to them, but is presumably a form of Kanāw^{*}rī. According to the same authority the word Kanāw^{*}rī should properly be written Kanaurī. The Kanaurīs themselves seem to call their language Kanōring skadd or Kanōreu-nu skadd.

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Cunningham, A.,—Ladāk, physical, statistical, and historical, with notices of the surrounding countries.

London 1854. Ch. xv contains vocabularies, Milchang, Tibarskad, etc.

- Beames, J.,—Outlines of Indian Philology, with a map shewing the distribution of Indian Languages.

 Calcutta 1867. Appendix B contains the personal pronouns in Milchang, Appendix A the numerals in Tibarskad, Sumchu, etc.
- Disc., A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi: Some Notes on its grammatical Structure, with specimens of the songs and sayings current amongst the people, and a glossary. Lahore 1896. Contains a Kanáwarí vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.
- Konow, Sten,—On some Facts connected with the Tibeto-Burman Dialect spoken in Kanawar. Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lix, 1905, pp. 117 and ff.

The remarks on Kanāwarī grammar which follow are almost exclusively based on Mr. Bruske's list. I have, however, also drawn attention to the principal cases in which the specimens differ.

Pronunciation.—Mr. Bruske's list gives a good idea of the phonetical system of Kanāw^arī. O and e are both short and long. The short o often interchanges with a. The vowel a in a, I, etc., is described as something like the sound of a in French a. The sound of a in a, four, is said to be something between the Latin a and a.

Long and short vowels are often interchanged, and, in many cases, their length is quite indefinite.

No aspirated soft consonants occur in Mr. Bruske's list of words. The materials forwarded from the district, however, have instances both of gh and of jh. Aspirated and unaspirated hard consonants are apparently often interchanged. Thus, khim, house; $k\bar{\imath}m$ - \bar{o} , in the house, both in the list; chang, son, in the list, chhang in the specimens, and so forth. Th and t in the specimens often correspond to t in the list; thus, thur and tur, run. The cerebral sound is, at least in many cases, certainly the correct one. Sh and j are interchanged in $\bar{a}sh$ and $\bar{a}j$, goat. Hard and soft consonants sometimes interchange; thus, to and $d\bar{u}$, is, and so forth.

Compound letters are sometimes simplified; thus, $l\bar{e}$, Tibetan lche, tongue; lang, Tibetan (ba-)glang, cow; khim, Tibetan khyim, house, and so forth. In other cases the compounds are preserved; thus, $sg\acute{u}i$ and $g\acute{u}i$, Tibetan dgu, nine; $kr\bar{a}$, Tibetan skra, hair. The materials available are not sufficient for laying down definite rules.

The final k' in yunék', sun, is said to be only half pronounced. We have no detailed information about the use of such half-sounded letters in the dialect. It is probable that we have here to do with the so-called abrupt tone of Central and Western Tibetan. Mr. Bailey's specimen shows that this abrupt tone is of frequent occurrence. It has been marked by means of a 'after the syllable. The abrupt tone has been compared by Mr. Skrefsrud with the semi-consonants of Munda languages, and in the case of Kanāwarī it is not improbable that Munda influence has been at work.

We have no information about the existence of other tones in the dialect.

The accent has been marked in the list of words by means of a over the accented syllable. Thus, $dammin-\bar{u}$, to good men. The accent usually remains on the base. There are several exceptions to the rule, but we are not as yet able to discern the laws regulating the matter.

Article.—There is no article. The numeral id, one, often in the abbreviated form $\bar{\imath}$, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $id\ b\'{a}ni\bar{a}$, a shopkeeper; $\bar{\imath}\ m\bar{\imath}-\bar{u}$, to a man. The initial \acute{a} in \acute{a} - $m\bar{a}$, mother; \acute{a} - $t\bar{e}$, elder brother, and so forth, is not an article, but a prefix as in Western Tibetan.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the common way by using different words or by adding words denoting the sex. Thus, $d\acute{a}mas$, bull; lang, cow: $ky\bar{o}$ -ráng, horse; $m\acute{a}nt$ -rang and $g\acute{o}nm\ddot{a}$, mare: $\bar{a}sh$, he-goat; $bak\acute{o}r$, she-goat, and so forth.

Number.—There are three numbers, the singular, the dual, and the plural. The dual is indicated by the addition of the numeral nish, two; thus, nish $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}$, two fathers. Sometimes also the plural suffix is added; thus, nish $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}n$, two fathers.

The plural is not indicated when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is on, or, after vowels, n; thus, $ch\bar{i}med$ -on, daughters; $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}$ -n, fathers; $m\bar{i}$ -n, men. Other sources give \bar{a} , oblique $\bar{a}n$, instead; thus, chimet- \bar{a} , daughters; $r\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} , horses. This shows that the final n cannot be distinctly sounded. After vowels we sometimes find $g\bar{a}$, and sometimes no termination; thus, $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}$, fathers; $\bar{a}p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{a}n$ - \bar{u} , of fathers; $m\bar{i}$, men; $m\bar{i}n$ - \bar{u} , of men, and so forth. Compare $d\bar{o}$ -gon, they, and Tibetan kun, all.

The existence of a dual in the dialect will be more apparent when we proceed to deal with pronouns. It is not a feature of Tibeto-Burman languages, and it must therefore have been introduced from without. It seems probable that it is due to the influence of an older population which has been absorbed by the Bhōṭiās. In this and in other characteristics, in which it differs from other Tibeto-Burman forms of speech, Kanāwarī agrees with the Muṇḍā languages, and it therefore seems allowable to infer that the old population which has influenced Kanāwarī grammar belonged to the Muṇḍā stock.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative are not usually distinguished by means of any suffix. The dative is formed by adding \bar{u} or u, and this form is often also used as an accusative. Thus, $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}-\bar{u}$, to a father; g^a -s $d\bar{o}u$ cháng- \bar{u} gob tóng-shids to, I have beaten his son (lit. to his son) much; $g\bar{a}-\bar{u}$ $n\bar{n}-u$ pishtíng den shed, put the saddle upon his back.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix s; thus, chang-s (or chhang-es) lán-shits, son-by given, the son has given. The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, b^a shes, with ropes.

The specimens do not always use the suffix \bar{u} in order to form a dative, but often add a postposition pany instead; thus, $b\bar{a}w\bar{a}$ -pany, to the father.

The suffix of the ablative is dagts; thus, $b\bar{b}b\bar{a}-dagts$ or $b\bar{b}b\bar{a}-\bar{u}$ dagts, from a father. The real suffix is probably ts, instead of which we occasionally find ch; thus, kim-rim-ch, from the property, in the first specimen.

The suffix of the genitive is u, or \bar{u} . The list has both forms; the specimens only give \bar{u} . Thus, $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}-u$, of a father; $r\dot{a}ng-\bar{u}$, of the horse.

The suffix of the locative is \bar{o} ; thus, $kim-\bar{o}$, in the house.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are den, on; nyums and nyúms-kō, behind; oms and oms-kō, before; tang, with, to; $y\bar{u}t\acute{u}ng$, under, all occurring in the list.

In the specimens some additional postpositions occur such as ding (and dang), to, with; rang and $r\bar{a}$, near, with; $amp\bar{\imath}$, before, with, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. Thus, $dam \ m\bar{\imath}$, a good man. Comparison is expressed by adding s, i.e. probably the suffix of the ablative, to the compared noun and retaining the adjective unchanged.

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Thus, $n\bar{n}-u$ baiā án-u ringsē-s lāmas dū, his brother own sister-from tall is, his brother is taller than his sister. Note also $ts\bar{e}n-\bar{u}$ $r\bar{a}ngk$, all-of high, highest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that it, one, agrees with Manchāṭī idi, id, etc. The remaining ones are most closely connected with the forms in use in Manchāṭī and the Almora dialects. Compare $p\ddot{u}$, four; Manchāṭī and Chaudāngsī $p\bar{\imath}$; stish, Manchāṭī nyij, Chaudāngsī $n\bar{\imath}s$, seven; $g\acute{u}i$, Manchāṭī $k\ddot{u}$, Chaudāngsī $gv\bar{\imath}$, nine; sai, Manchāṭī $s\ddot{a}$, Chaudāngsī $ch\bar{\imath}$, ten. Note nish $nizzā\bar{u}$ sai, fifty, lit. two twenties ten; $ng\bar{a}$ $nizz\bar{a}$, hundred, lit. five twenties. This method of counting higher numbers in twenties is peculiar to the Muṇḍā languages. It also occurs in Manchāṭī, Chamba Lāhulī, the Rangkas dialect of Almora, etc.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns in Kanāwarī have developed a richly varied system of different forms. Not only are there respectful forms and ordinary forms of the second person singular, but the personal pronouns have different forms for all three numbers, and in the case of the dual and the plural of the first person there are two different sets of forms, one including and one excluding the party addressed. Both those latter characteristics, the existence of different forms for all three numbers, and the use of double sets of forms in the dual and plural of the first person, are distinctly Muṇḍā, while they are in entire disagreement with Tibeto-Burman principles.

The principal forms of the personal pronouns will be seen from the table which follows:—

		SINGU LAB.		DTAL.		PLURAL.	
		Ordinary.	Respectful.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive
1st pers. nom.	•	g^{a}	•••	níshī	káshang	ningán	kíshang
instr.	•	$g^a s$	•••	níshī-s	káshang-s	n i ngā'n-s	kíshang•s
gen.	•	ang		nísh ī-u	káshang-u	ningā'n-u	kíshang-u
2nd pers. nom.		ka	ki		$kishar{\imath}$		k i nā'n
instr.		ka-s	ki-s		kísh i- s	•••	kinān-s
gen.	•	ka- n	ki-n		$kishar{\imath}$ - u	•••	kinā n-u
3rd pers. nom.		do		$d ilde{o}$ -s $ extbf{\textit{u}}$ ng	•••	$d \delta g$ o n	***
instr.		do-s		dő-sung-s	•••	dógon-s	•••
gen.	•	d o-u		dōʻ-sung-u		dogon-u	

Several slightly differing forms occur in the specimens. They will, however, be easily understood. Postpositions are apparently added to the genitive. Thus, $\bar{a}ng-\bar{u}$, to me; $\bar{a}ng$ den, on me.

A reflexive pronoun is $\acute{a}n$ -u, an-o, own.

Demonstrative pronouns are ju, this; $n\bar{u}$, that.

Interrogative pronouns are hat, who? t^at , what; $t\bar{e}$, how great? $t\acute{e}r\bar{a}$, how much? how many? $t\bar{u}$, why? The specimens have $th\bar{u}$, what? $th\bar{u}$, why? The specimens also furnish the indefinite pronoun $hais\bar{\imath}$, by anyone.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative clauses are apparently formed by using the interrogative pronouns. Thus, thö-döng ang doā' tō do kan-ō, whatever me near-is that thine; kan chhang, hāis, that son whom-by. It is evident that the relative words in such phrases are no real relatives but belong to the interrogative pronouns.

Verbs.—The Kanāwarī verb possesses a richly developed system of different forms.

Intransitive verbs are comparatively simple. Transitive verbs on the other hand.

Intransitive verbs are comparatively simple. Transitive verbs, on the other hand, can assume several various forms. The base alone, in connexion with tense suffixes and personal terminations, is used when the verb has an ordinary object. Thus, $n\bar{n}-n\bar{u}$ jigpo tong, him-to well beat, beat him well. If the object, on the other hand, is a personal pronoun of the first or second person, ch is inserted between the base and the termination. Thus, tong-ch, beat me; bando tā-ch-iny, servant make-me. In the specimens, however, we occasionally find forms such as $\bar{a}ng-\bar{u}$ tong-mig, instead of tong-chi-mig, in order to strike me.

The verb ran-mig, to give, is in a similar way only used when the indirect object is of the third person. In other cases a base $k\bar{e}$ is used instead. Thus, $ky\bar{o}$, give me; $k\bar{e}$ - $\bar{i}m$ $gy\bar{a}ch$, to give to me was proper, you ought to give me.

In addition to those forms, transitive verbs have a third base which is used with a reflexive or reciprocal meaning. It is formed by inserting sh between the base and the terminations. Thus, $t\acute{o}ng$ -shi-mig, to beat each other, or, to beat oneself. This third base is constructed like an intransitive verb, *i.e.*, the subject is not put in the case of the agent, but remains in the nominative. Thus, g^a $t\acute{o}ng$ - $sh\bar{o}$ tog, I am beating myself; but g^a -s $t\acute{o}ng$ - $ch\bar{o}$ tog, I beat thee, or, you.

These different bases are not formed in accordance with Tibeto-Burman grammatical principles. Corresponding forms are, on the other hand, quite common in Muṇḍā languages. The verb of the typical Muṇḍā dialects such as Santālī, Muṇḍārī, and so on, incorporates the direct and the indirect object in the verbal form by means of pronominal infixes, and it has developed different bases to denote the passive and the middle. Compare Santālī, dal-e-a-e, he strikes him; dal-iñ-a-e, he strikes me; dal-ok'-a-e, he strikes himself, and so forth. It seems probable that we are here again confronted with an instance of the influence exercised on Kanāwarī by an old Muṇḍā population.

The different bases are inflected in the same way. The person of the subject is not necessarily expressed in the verb when it appears from the context. Thus, g^a -s $d\bar{b}$ -u cháng- \bar{u} gob tóngshids to, me-by his son-to much having-struck am, I have beaten his son with many stripes. The dialect is, however, able to distinguish the person of the subject by means of personal suffixes added to the verb. There is no such suffix to denote the third person. The suffixes of the first and second persons singular are g and g-s tóng-ch-g-to-g-f. I strike you; ka tóng-sh-g-to-g-to-g-f, I strike you; ka tóng-sh-g-to-g-f, I and thou go.

In addition to such personal terminations there are also some respectful suffixes, viz. ny for the first and second persons, and sh for the third. Thus, ang oms pai-ny, please walk before me; ang $b\bar{o}b\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}$ $g\acute{a}tots$ $k\bar{\imath}m-\bar{o}$ $t\acute{o}sh-\bar{o}$ $t\bar{o}-sh$, my father that small house-in living is.

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A suffix ch is used in the first and second persons dual and plural, and also in the third person of the past. It occurs almost exclusively in the list, and no detailed rules about its use are given.

Verb substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is to, corresponding to Tibetan 'a-dug-pa or sdod-pa. In the past tense we also find a fuller form $t\bar{o}k\bar{e}$. Only a present and a past are formed from this base. Other tenses are supplied from the bases hach, to become; ni, to remain; $t\bar{o}sh$, to sit, to be. Instead of to we also find du or $d\bar{u}$. A base i occurs in $m\bar{a}$ -ig, I am not, in the first specimen.

The following are the full forms of the base to with the personal terminations added:—

<u> </u>				PRESENT.		PAST.				
				Ordinary.	Respectful.	Ore	dinary.	Respe	ectful.	
Sing.	1.	•		to-g		tē-g;	tốkē-g			
	2. 3.	•	•	to-n tō	to-ny to-sh	tē-n;	tốkē-n tốkē	tēny ; tē-sh ;	tōkē-ny tŏkē-sh	
Dual	 exclus. inclus. 		•	to-ch tó-nmē		tē-ch ;	tőkē-ch tőkē		••	
	2. 3.		•	to-ch tō	 to-sh	tē-ch;	tõkē-ch tõkē	tē-sh ;	 tōk ē- sh	
Plur.	1. exclus.			to-ch	to-ny	tē-ch;	t ố kẽ-ch	tê-ny ;	tōkē-ny i	
	1. inclus. 2.	•	•	tó-nmē to-ch	 to -n y	tē;	tốkē tõkē-ch	tē-ny ;	·· tốkē-ny	
	3.	•	•	tō	to-sh	to-ch;	tôkē	tēsh ;	tõkē-sh	

In the past tense there is also a form to-ts, which is used in all persons and numbers. Instead of tosh we find toch in tong-shids toch, I have beaten.

Finite verb.—The terminations of finite verbs are the same as those used in the verb substantive. It should, however, be borne in mind that the personal terminations are not necessary, and they are rarely used in the specimens.

Present time.—The usual present tense is formed by adding the present of the verb substantive to the participle ending in \bar{o} . Thus g^a $b\hat{i} - \bar{o}$ to-g, I am going, I go; ka-s tóng-ch- \bar{o} to-n, thou art beating me; lodo-du, is saying, and so forth. This form is properly a present definite. A present is also formed by adding the personal terminations immediately to the participle; thus, $shi\bar{o}$ -g, I die; $z\bar{a}o$, they eat.

 $^{^1}$ to-ny, etc., with $ning\hat{a}n$, we, is said to be used indiscriminately with to-ch, etc.

Past time.—The suffix of past time is apparently i or \bar{e} . The personal terminations are mainly the same as in the present. In the third person, however, we find a new suffix gy. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ -gy, he went. The table which follows gives the full forms of $b\bar{\imath}$ -mig, to go, and tong-mig, to strike. The dual agrees with the plural, except with regard to the respectful forms of the two first persons, which are not used in the dual:—

	Sinc	ULAR.			PL	JRAL.				
				1st pe	rson.					
	1st person.	2nd person.	3rd person.	Exclus.	Inclus.	2nd person	3rd person.			
Ordinary .	$bar{\imath}$ - $m{e}$ - g	bĭ-ēn	$bar{\imath}gy$	bī'ē-cħ	bĩ-ē	$b\bar{\imath}'$ - \bar{e} - ch	bigy			
Respectful .	•••	bĩ-ēny	bĩ'-ē-sh	bī'-ē-ny	•••	bī'-ē-ny	bī'-ē-sh			
Ordinary .	t ón $m{g}$ - i g	tóng-in	tóng-ā	tóng-ich	tón gy ē	tóng-ich	tóng-ā			
Respectful .	•••	tóng-iny	tón g ish	tóng-iny	•••	tóng-iny	tóng-ish			
Ordinary .	tóng-ch i g	tóng-chin	tóng-chigy	tóng-chi-ēch	tóng-chī-ē	tóng-chĩ-ēch	tóng-chē			
Respectful .	•••	tóng-chiny	tóng-chĩ-ēsh	tóng-ch ī -ēny		tóng-chĩ-ẽny	tóng-chī-ēsh			

Tóng-shi-g, I struck myself, and so forth, is conjugated like tóng-chi-g, I struck thee.

Other forms occurring in the specimens are $lod\bar{a}$, said; $ran\bar{a}$, gave; $d\bar{a}$ -shi-ch, he and I quarrelled with each other; $ch\bar{e}n$ -s $su\hat{n}ch$ $l\bar{a}n$ - \bar{a} , all-by thought made, all wondered.

A compound past is formed from a past participle ending in shids; thus, tong-shids-to, having beaten am, I have beaten; tong-shids-toch, I had beaten. In the second specimen shid is used instead of shids, and this form usually has the meaning of an ordinary past. Thus, lō-shid, he said; kē-shid, gave to me; tong-shid, he struck, and so forth.

The specimens furnish instances of several other forms of the past.

The participle ending in \bar{o} is often used as a past; thus, $l\bar{a}n$ - \bar{o} , did; bi- \bar{o} , went.

S is added in forms such as $h\bar{a}chi$ -s, became. This s is also the suffix of a participle. See below.

Periphrastic forms are gyau- $du\bar{e}$, he was wishing; lano- $du\bar{e}$, was making; $thas\bar{o}$ $d\bar{u}$, he heard, and so forth.

Future.—The future is formed by adding the present tense of the verb substantive to the base. Thus, tong-tog, I shall strike; bi-to-g, I will go, and so forth. If the object of a transitive verb is a pronoun of the first or second person, and if the verb is used with a reflexive or reciprocal meaning, to is replaced by cho or sho, respectively. Thus, ka-s tong-cho-n, thou wilt strike me, or, us; dogon tong-sho, they will beat each other, and so forth. Other bases ending in ch or sh also form their future in the same manner; thus, hach-og, I shall become; tosh-og, I shall remain, and so forth.

The future is commonly used as a conjunctive. Forms such as $hachids \cdot g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may become; ni-ds- $g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may be; g^a -s $t\acute{o}ng$ -shids- $g\bar{e}\bar{a}$, I may beat, are almost only used in prayers, and then in the third person singular only.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative. Personal terminations are added in the respectful form, in the dual and the plural. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$, go; respectful

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 $b\bar{\imath}ny$; dual $b\bar{\imath}ch$; plural $b\bar{\imath}ch$, respectful $b\bar{\imath}ny$. Similarly we find $z\bar{a}$, eat; tosh, respectful $tosh\acute{n}ny$, sit, and so forth. Irregular are $jar\bar{a}$, respectful jany, come; $d\acute{e}ny\bar{u}$, plural $d\acute{e}nich$, stand; $t\bar{u}rat$, respectful $t\bar{u}r\acute{a}ny$, run; $ky\bar{o}$, respectful $k\bar{e}ny$, plural $k\bar{e}ch$, give me, or us (but ran, respectful rany, etc., give to him, or them); tsud, respectful tsuny, dual and plural tsuch, draw; dab, respectful damny, dual and plural dab-ch, draw (water from the well), and so forth.

Transitive bases have the same variety of forms as in the case of finite tenses. Thus, ki-s tong-ny, please strike; tong-ch, beat me; kishīs tong-chich, beat me you two, kinān tóngshich, beat ye each other, and so forth.

Such forms are used when the imperative refers to something which should be done immediately. If the action is to be performed in future after having done something else, the imperative is formed by adding $r\bar{a}$, respectful rany; dual rach, plural rach, respectful rany to the base. The accent is somewhat irregular. The table which follows has been taken from Mr. Bruske's list and will not be reproduced in the list itself:—

	S	INGULAR.	DUAL.	Pı	LURAL.	
	Common.	Respectful.		Common.	Respectful.	
go	bī-rā	bī-rány	bī-rach	b í-rach	bī-rány	
eat	zā-rā	zā-rány	zá-rach	zấ-rach	zā-rány	
sit	tõshī-rā	tōs h ī•rány	tōshī-rach	tōshī-rach	tōshī-rány	
c o me	$j\dot{ar{a}}$ -r $ar{a}$	jā-rany	jấ-rach	ŋά-rach		
beat	tóng-rā	tong•rány	tón g-r ach	tóng-rach	tong-rány	
eat me	tóng-chī-rā	tong-chī-rány	tóng-chī-rach	tóng-chĩ-rach	tong-chi-rány	
stand	dēnī-rā	dēnī-rány	dēnī-rach	dēnī-rach	สิริกาี-หนักหู	
lie	shī-rā	shī-rány	shī-rách	shī-rách	shī-rány	
give	rán-rā	ran-rány	ran-rách	ran-rách	run-, ány	
give me	kế-r à	kē-rány	kế-rach	ké-rach	kē-rāry	
un	turā-rā	turā-rany	tùrá-rach	turő-rack	turō-rany	
ake	ún-rā	un•rány	un-rách	un-rách	un-rany	
ind	tsú-rã	tsu-rány	tsu-rách	tsu-rách	tsu-rány	
lraw	dáb-rã	ḍab•r á ny	đáb-rach	dáb-rach	āab-rāny	
walk	paí-rā	pai-rány	pai-rách	pai-rách	pai-rány	

There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The usual suffix of the verbal noun is m, or im; thus $h\acute{a}chim$, to become; $r\bar{o}g\bar{s}m$, to feed; $b\bar{s}m$, to go. The suffix ig is often added. Thus, $t\acute{o}n$ -mig, to be; $t\acute{o}ng$ -shi-m-ig, to beat oneself. Such forms are probably infinitives of purpose.

Participles.—A present participle is formed by adding the suffixes \bar{o} and s, and a corresponding past by adding shids; thus, $b\bar{\iota}\bar{o}$, going; $h\bar{s}chis$, being; $t\acute{o}ng\text{-}chi\text{-}s$, beating me, or us, or thee, or you; $t\acute{o}shis$, sitting; $t\acute{o}ng\text{-}shids$, beaten, who has beaten, and so forth.

Conjunctive participles appear to be formed by reduplicating the base; thus, tong-tong, beating; $b\tilde{i}-b\tilde{i}$, having gone, and so forth. In dorarea, having run, the reduplication appears to take place in the interior of the word.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent after the subject.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, $ma-n\bar{i}$, it is not, no.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying words precede the qualified ones.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff.

[No. 37.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANĀWARĪ.

Specimen I.

(Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, 1907).

'babā Zigits chhang-es ano bawā lodā'. miū nish chhang dūe'. 'father own father-to said, Little son-by sons were. One man-of two diārōch keō.' Dos bantha ranā'. Gatō anō hiza (or hissā) ang Fewdays-from give-me.' Him-by own partgave. portion my niums zigits chhang-es lanā' workiō bio', döng wamang anō tsuē zoma went, there evilfar alltogether made littleson-by ownafter mulkiō Dos kharts lani' đō $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ shungā'. tsoē kāmang anō all spending made that country-in work-in own property finished. Him-by hadō maĩts ollö pöpö, dō angkālang bī-bī mū-lī having-gone altogether nothing-is straitened having-arrived, hethat famine sūra duā' (or dā') bio'; anō rīwanō hidu (or tōshizeā) dosmulkiō went; him-by own fields-to pigsdwellernear country-of zāmig gyau-due', shēdā. $\mathbf{D}_{\bar{\mathbf{0}}}$ sūras rokshimi kholop an rogim wishing-was, pigs feeding-for Hehusks self to-eat sent. to-feed kadā' dog lodo-dū, 'ang bawā doā' ma ranā'. Tserep hāisī dō yāt Little memory brought then saying-is, 'my father near anyone-by that not gave. mozūrī dū', rotē zāo, $\mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{a}}$ jöng petang pöng stang up-to bread eating, I here hungry how many labourers are, belly fillParmēshuras \mathbf{G}^{a} "bawā, shiōg. ang bawā döng bitog do-pöng lō-tag, God's "father, die. I myfather therewill-go him-to will-say, pāp lan-lan Angu nūkrī kin g^a lāik māig. kan chhang hachi servant your sinhaving-done worthy not-am. Me \boldsymbol{I} thyson to-betāchiny." warkiō due', Sorshis anō bowā döng biō'. Do chhang place-me." Having-arisen own father far was, there went. That son aņō bawās tanga', kötsang tsalo-dū' dājā (or dorareā') aņo chhangā own father-by saw, evil (miserable) thinking-is son-to having-run kakts tsumā' papū ranā'. Chhangas bonu lodo-dū'. 'bowa, anō neck-to heldkissgave. Son-by own father-to saying-is, father, Parmēshuras kin lāik māig.' pāp lan-lan g^a kan chhang hachī God's your not-am. sinhaving-done \boldsymbol{I} thy sonto-be worthy Bonas nükrenu lodo-dū', 'tsuēnu dam chhugā totoā (or tōtā') phoginy; Father-by servants-to saying-is, 'all-than good clothes having-extracted put-on;

gūdau pratsau mundī sheny, bangō shpon sheny, yokshīd āzh kaka hand-on finger-on ring send, feet-on shoes send, fattened goat having-brought shun-mig ningā zātony khusi hachiny (or nitiny); thū. ang chhang to-kill shall-eat merry shall-be; sonwhy, myshī-shī toke', hē shunggi (shonggi) hachis (hachas); sho bi-bi toke'. was, became: having-died again alive lost having-gone was, porēdā.' Dos khusī lano-due'. again was-obtained. Him-by happiness making-was.

tëg atē rīmō dūve'. Kimu nērangō büde-rang (or büdyenen) His big brother field-in House-to was. near coming-on Ī bazetsu skad thasō-dū'. bazgī nukrū kuku do-pöng īō-dū'. One servant-to having-called him-to asking-is, music sounding-of noise hearing-is. 'thö hache'?' lodo-dū', 'kan dzigits Nukrös atē bēudā'. Kan bowās 'what became?' Servant-by saying-is, 'thy little brother came. Thy father-by shubā', do tenges shubo-du', ano yokshid azhu' chhang dam porereā'.' killed, that fattened goat for killing-is, own son well having-obtained. Dō dukhang tang-tang kumo $b\bar{i}m$ ma-gyau-du'. dō bonHe having-looked grieved house-in not-wishing-is, to-go father hisbäerang bībī anu chhangu somzāeo-dū'. Dos lodo-dū', gas son-to causing-to-understand-is. Him-by saying-is, 'me-by outside having-gone own boshang kan kamang tē lan-lan, kas angu tērangī bokharu thy work how-many years having-done, thee-by me-to she-goat ever-even chhang $m\bar{a}$ kē-kē $\mathbf{kone} \mathbf{ar{a}}$ ang rang khusi lan-tog. Kan having-given-to-me young notI friendswithhappiness make-shall. Thy tērang bödā', hāis chhang kan mālā pātaranu udāeā', dõ when soncame, whom-by thy property harlots-to wasted, thee-by him tenges vokshid azh shub-shub.' Bonös lodo-dū', 'chhang, ka \mathbf{ta} for fattened goatkilled. Father-by saying-is, 'son, thou then straight-on rang ēkē ton; thödöng ang doā' to', do kano. Khusi togetherwith art:whatever menear thatthine. Happiness khusi hachi-mig lan-mig dam toke'; thū, kan bāiā shi-shi toke'. to-make merry to-become good was; why, thy brotherhaving-died was. · shönggī hāchis; hē shō bī-bī toke'. hē porēdā'.' became; lost having-gone aliveagain was, again was-obtained.

[No. 38.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN BRANCH.

KANĀWARĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT KANAWAR.)

Āng Mādhō: bawā-ū nāmang nāmang Sādhō; zāt kundas; Mādhō; father-of Myname nameSādhō; castekanet; bashchyā. Mudēi-s äng-den Köstam-pi ārkolang dāwā lān-shid. Ga-s inhabitant. Plaintiff-by me-on Koti-in false complaint gave. Me-by mudēi-pang mā tong-shid. Nishī anen-u mājang mā dā-shich. struck. I-and-he among not quarrelled-with-each-other. plaintiff-to notown Ang biting-den jagrā tōkē. G^{a} ī panchō-pang phi-phi nāpā Mywall-on quarrel Ione was. arbitrators-to taking there shē-mig biting-ū simang bī-shid. Ninga[n] dak biting-ū-den pu-shid, delimitationto-make wall-of Wewent. then wall-at reached. ningān-ū gāling terang mudēī-s kērā; āng-ū tong-mig thurerā budā. us-toabusegave; me-to plaintiff-by thento-strike running came. Maṇāữ-maṇāữ (i.e. an-u an-u) suñch län-ā. Chēn-s kim-ō bi-shid. Ga-s thoughtmade.Own-own All-by house-to went. Me-by byang-byang nā-pāks lī ang kim-ö bi-shid. Hāl thurerā āng therefrom fearing myhouse-to went. Hastealsorunning mythukar lageda. Āng kim-ō bī-bī bang-ō shum dyār tō-tō-brin hurt was-applied. Myhouse-to going threedaysfoot-to senseless sunchā-shī, Mudēī-s dākchēk. 'āng-den gālīng kēsō nālish Plaintiff-by thought-having, 'me-on abuselay. giving-of complaint lān-tog,' dāwā rōkyāīm ārkolang ang nālish āng-den shē-shid. Āng-ū give-will,' my complaint to-stop falsecomplaintme-on put. Me-to kē-shid; do-ū lī nālish lān-tok. that-of Ι abusegave; alsocomplaint give-will.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

My name is Mādhō; my father's name Sādhò; my caste Kanet; my village Koti. The plaintiff has lodged a false complaint against me. I did not strike him. He and I have no quarrel with each other. I have a quarrel concerning a wall, and I had gone there with the arbitrators in order to settle the limits. When we came to the wall, the plaintiff abused us and came running to strike me. Everybody wondered at it. All then went home, and I also returned thence, much alarmed. I ran very fast, and my foot was hurt. During three days I lay senseless at home. The plaintiff feared that I should lodge a complaint against him for abuse, and filed a false complaint in order to stop it. He abused me, and I am going to accuse him.

KANĀSHĪ.

Kanāshī is the dialect spoken in a glen within the Bias valley, containing only the village, called by outsiders Malāna and by the villagers themselves Mālānī. According to Mr. Diack, 'the glen is a very deep and narrow one, extending from the mountain ridge (at that point impassable or nearly so) forming the tri-junction of the Bias, Chenab, and Spiti watersheds down to the valley of the Parbati, a large tributary of the Bias from the east. At the point of junction between the Malana stream and the Parbati the sides of the glen are steeply precipitous and the path zig-zagging from one side to the other is extremely difficult. The only other ways of entering the glen are by very high and somewhat difficult passes between it and the Bias valley on the one hand and the Parbati valley on the other. The village of Malana is thus very isolated, and to this isolation doubtless is due the preservation of the ancient and curious dialect spoken there.'

The number of speakers has been estimated for the purpose of this Survey at 980. The dialect was not separately returned at the last Census of 1901.

AUTHORITIES-

HARCOURT, A. F. P.,—The Himalayan districts of Kooloo, Lahoul, and Spiti. London 1871. Contains a Malauna vocabulary on pp. 379 and ff.

FANSHAWE, H. C.,—Kulu-Language spoken at Malana. Panjab Notes and Queries. Vol. i, Nos. 376, 471, 554. Compare Mr. Tribe's notes in Nos. 806, 879, and 958.

DIACK, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi: some notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the songs and sayings current amongst the people, and a glossary. Lahore 1896, pp. 99 and f. Contains a Kanashi vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.

I am indebted to Mr. G. C. L. Howell, Assistant Commissioner of Kulu, for two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases in Kanāshī. These materials are far superior to anything that has hitherto been published about the dialect, and the remarks which follow are entirely based on them. Mr. Howell writes that he has not as yet been able to make a thorough study of Kanāshī, and that several points in pronunciation and grammar still remain uncertain.

Name of the language.—Mr. Howell points out that the word Kanāshī is stated to be derived from Kanāsh, the name of an unknown region.

Pronunciation.—The materials have been noted down in Roman and vernacular characters. Among the latter versions there is one written in the Tibetan alphabet, which in many respects seems to be superior to the rest, and which I have therefore mainly followed.

Mr. Howell states that he cannot hear any aspirates in the dialect, but that his clerks say they can. The state of things is probably the same as in Tibetan, where unaspirated mutes are much less aspirated than in English, and the corresponding aspirates more like the English unaspirated sounds. I have therefore introduced aspirates where the Tibetan text gives them.

Cerebral letters have likewise been introduced from the texts in Tibetan character. The same is the case with the palatal ny, for which the Romanized text has n.

The dialect possesses semi-consonants in words such as tek', great; buratak', comes; duj', to him, and so on. The materials available are, however, still insufficient for giving detailed rules about their use, and I have not attempted to note them consistently.

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The palatal sounds \underline{ts} , $\underline{ts}h$, dz, and zh all exist. They are, however, often confounded in the texts. Thus the suffix of the dative occurs as uj, uzh, and uz.

R, r and l are sometimes interchanged; compare $ch\bar{a}ri$, forty; $s\bar{o}ra$ and $s\bar{o}la$, sixteen; khalas and kharas, standing, etc.

Tones and accent.—Tones are said to be a prominent feature of the dialect. It has not, however, been possible to lay down rules for their use. The accent is usually thrown as far back as possible.

Articles.—There are no articles, but *i*, the shortest form of the first numeral, is often used as a kind of indefinite article; thus, *i marshang-ka-di*, with a man.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the common way, by using different words or adding terms denoting the sex; thus, marshang, man; betrī, woman: chho, son; chīme, daughter; rāng, horse; mīch rāng, mare; kui, dog; mīch kutī, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The latter is not necessarily marked, when it appears from the context; thus, shum rhad, three bulls. There is, however, a separate plural suffix ga, which usually takes the fuller form gan before suffixes; thus, nyish $b\bar{a}$ -ga, two fathers; $b\bar{a}$ -gan-ka, of fathers; chanditso marshang-gan-ditso, from good men.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs is not distinguished by means of any suffix. The final i in du-i tot- $k\tilde{o}$, he was; duga-i tot-ke, they were, is probably an emphasizing particle.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually distinguished by means of a suffix sh or s; thus, $b\bar{a}$ -sh tang-mo, father-by saw, the father saw; jang-s sanemuk, God-by slew, the God slew. The two first personal pronouns do not appear to possess any such case.

The object is often distinguished by adding a p; thus, lata-phata-p, property; $s\bar{u}ra-p$ rwang-m, swine-to feed; ba-p lon-mo, father-to said.

The suffix of the dative is uj, the final sound of which is stated to be a semi-consonant. The text in Tibetan character usually has uzh instead; thus, chime-uj, to a daughter; chho-uj, to a son; ba-ga-uj, to fathers; chime-goj, to daughters.

The suffix of the ablative occurs as s, dz, and \underline{ts} ; thus, Kultang-s, from Kulu; korang-ngaz, from the rent; ba-di- \underline{ts} , from a father; chandi \underline{ts} e ma r shang-gan-di- \underline{ts} , from good men. The postposition di \underline{ts} e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t e t

The genitive is formed by adding ka; thus, gramang-ka, of the village; ba-gan-ka, of fathers.

The suffix of the locative and terminative is a; thus, pagring-a, in the pagri; sho-w-a, into the fields; kathi-gan-a, on the passes.

Other relations are expressed by adding postpositions. Such are $p\bar{a}$, on; kash, for the sake of; rang, with; hipich, behind; nandris, before; yen, under, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually precede the noun they qualify; thus, kora nashing, the lower house; shobila shobila gāsa, good good clothes; but mal-ap sab-ap, all the property. In nyish chanditso marshang, two good men, an o has been added to the adjective before a plural noun. Comparison is expressed in the usual

way by putting the compared noun in the ablative or the locative; thus, du-ka bau du-ka ringz(-ka) $ni\underline{ts}$ lamas to, his brother his sister from tall is; sab-ka- $ni\underline{ts}$ akli, all from wise; sab-a tek, all among great. The initial ni in ni- \underline{ts} , ni-dz, from, is probably a postposition with the same meaning as di, with; compare du and nu, that.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. It will be seen that many of them are Aryan loanwords. Nyish, two, nyi-za, twenty, have been written nish, niza, respectively, in most specimens. The forms with ny have been taken from the texts written in the Tibetan character. Higher numbers are counted in twenties, though the Aryan method of reckoning in tens is also commonly used by men, while the women stick to the other way. Compare nyiza uj das, twenty and ten, thirty; nyiza uj gyara, thirty-one; shat or shum biya, three scores, sixty; pu biya, eighty, and so forth.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

gu, I.	ko, thou.	du, nu , he, she, it.
ang- p , me.		du, nu , he, she, it. du - p , him, her, it.
ang-z, to me.	$k\bar{a}j$ or $k\bar{a}dz$, to thee.	du-s, by him.
		duguj, nuguj, for him.
a- ka , my.	kan, kan-ka, thy.	du- ka , his, her, its.
ni, we.	ki, you.	du- ga , they.
ni nyis-mis, we two	•	du-gash, by them.
ning-z, to us.	$k\bar{\imath}dz$, to you.	
ni- ka , our.	kin-ka, your.	du-gan-ka, there.

The termination z in ang-z, to me, is identical with the dative suffix uj. The base nu of the third person is inflected like du. Note also ang-rang, with me; du- $di\underline{ts}$, from him; du-gan-di, with them; anu and anuka, own.

There are apparently no dual forms and no double forms of the plural of the first person, denoting the exclusive and inclusive plural.

Interrogative pronouns are hate, who? hase, by whom? hat-ka, whose? hate ditse, from whom? chhuge, what? hole, how? kwe, why? Indefinite pronouns are formed from the same bases; thus, hati, any one; hasi, by any one; chhigi, anything.

The pronoun of the third person is also used as a demonstrative pronoun. Note also tes waktus, at that time.

Relative pronouns are yang-s, by whom; yang, whatever.

Verbs.—The materials at my disposal are not sufficient for giving a full sketch of Kanāshī conjugation. It is apparently much simpler than in Kanāw^arī. There are no certain instances of the use of suffixes to denote an object or to add a reflexive meaning. It is probable that the *shi* in forms such as *ashig*, became; *lam-shig*, was found; *na-shi-tamung*, we sit, is an intransitive or passive suffix, but nothing can be said with certainty.

As in Kanāwarī there are two verbs meaning 'to give,' ran and ke. The former is used when the indirect object is of the third person, the latter when it is of the first.

There is at least a strong tendency to distinguish the person of the subject by adding suffixes to the verb; thus, boke-k, I went; boke-n, wentest; bok, he went. The state of affairs seems to be as follows.

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In the first person singular a k is added; thus, shigu-ta-k, I die. This k is a semi-consonant, and g is occasionally written instead; thus, shan-mo-g, I did. Forms such as to-tang, I should beat; sho-tang, (that I) might make (merry), are perhaps plural, and to-tan, I may beat, is perhaps misheard for to-tang.

In the second person singular a suffix n is usually added; thus, to-n, art; bo-ke-n, wentest. In $tot-ke-n-\tilde{o}$, wast, a nasalized vowel has been added.

There is apparently no suffix to denote a subject of the third person; thus, to, is; royo-to, lives; lon-mo, said. Often, however, a half pronounced k' is added, as in the case of the first person; thus, bura-tak', he comes.

The characteristic termination of the two first persons plural is apparently ng; thus, bong-ta-ng, we go; bo-ke-ng, we went.

Verb Substantive.—The usual base of the verb substantive is to or tot, and it is inflected as follows:—

Pre	sent.		Past.
Sing. 1. tot-k. 2. to-n. 3. to.	Plur. 1. tong. 2. tong. 3. tush, tosh.	Sing. 1. tot-ke-k. 2. tot-ke-n-õ. 3. tot-kõ.	Plur. 1. tot-keng. 2. tot-keng. 3. totke.

The list of words gives tot-ke-k, I am, and tot-k, I was, but No. 192, gu toz tod-ke-k, I was beating, shows that tot-ke-k is the past.

Forms such as tosh are also used as a respectful singular; compare Kanāwarī.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive seems to play a considerable rôle in the conjugation of finite verbs, many forms being compounds of a participle and a verb substantive.

There are apparently two tenses, a present-future and a past. Mr. Howell doubts that the present and future terminations are interchangeable, but states that he has not been able to make his Mālānīs understand the difference between the various tenses, and the remarks which follow are therefore given with some reserve.

Present time.—The usual suffix of the present, which is also used as a future, is apparently ta, added to the base or to a form ending in u, ku, or gu; thus, bong-ta-k, I go, I shall go; shigu-ta-k, I die; royo-ta-n, dwellest; ran-ta-n, givest; dwa-ta, he comes; bura-tak, he comes; sho-tak, he does; to-ta-ng, we strike, we shall strike; tugu-tang, we drink; bung-tang and buko-tang, you go, etc.

Some suffixes such as mung, kung, kun, kon, or $k\tilde{u}$, and kush, are often added to this ta, apparently without adding anything to the meaning; thus, nashi-ta-mung, we sit; to-ta-kung, you beat, they beat; to-ta-kun (or $-k\tilde{u}$), you will beat, he will beat; $togu-ta-k\tilde{u}$, beatest, beats; lam-she-ta-kush, we pitch; to-ta-kush, they will beat, etc.

Forms such as *sho-tash*, they make; *bong-tash*, he comes, should be compared with *tosh*, is, are. The same is probably also the case with *tashang*, is.

Periphrastic forms containing the verb substantive are royo-to, he lives; raku-ta-to, he is grazing, and probably also bura-ch-to, he will come.

A k suffix occurs in na-shi-k, sits; hashi-g-eg, is; sukh-ne-k', there is peace; bo-ke, they go; ran-kek', they give, etc. Such forms are commonly used as past tenses.

Past time.—The usual suffixes of past time are apparently me or mo and k, ke, or ge; thus, shan-mo-g, I did; to-me-k, I struck; bura-ke-k, I have come; to-me-ng, we struck; bo-ke-ng, we went; khang-me-n, boughtest; bo-ke-n, wentest; bo-k, went; wat-k, laughed; mil-ek, was found; bura-k, came; richi-mo, he asked; ran-muk', he gave; shan-mug, he did; tsha-mek, he heard; bo-ke, they went; bhur-muk, they left. The suffixes kun or kũ and kush are used as in the present time. Compare twat-ke-kon, he sent; to-ge-kũ, struckest, struck; to-ge-kung, you struck, and perhaps to-me-kun, I had beaten; further to-ge-kush, they struck. Shigon, died, and bigon, was lost, are perhaps participles. Forms such as hashig and hashik, became; achig, arose, have already been mentioned under the head of present time. Compare also chum-shige, kissed, literally perhaps 'kissing became.'

Imperative.—The base alone can be used as an imperative; thus, ran, give; ach, be. The final ng in forms such as pi-chi-ng, put; ka-ng, bring, is perhaps a plural suffix. Compare the final ng in verbal forms of the first and second persons plural. There are apparently some imperative suffixes such as ke, t, and u; compare \underline{tshud} -ke, bind; bung-t, go; ra- \underline{t} , give; $l\bar{a}$ -u, put; to-muk, beat. Note also pi-chi-gu-n, make me, which apparently contains a suffix gu denoting an object of the first person, and another suffix n denoting the subject.

Passive voice.—There does not appear to be any passive voice. Compare ang-p to-ge-kush, me they struck, I was struck. Forms such as gu toto bura-tak, I striking go, I shall be struck, are simply attempts at a literal translation of the Aryan idiom.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The usual verbal nouns are formed by adding the suffix m or miz; thus, yang-m, to live; la-miz, to wear. Forms such as hashi-ta, to be; boda, to spare, are apparently identical with the usual base of the present time.

The reduplicated base is used as a participle; thus, za-za, eating; to-to, beaten. The usual tense bases are probably also used as participles. Compare bok, gone; hashige, having been. Note also to-z, beating; bung-sta bung-sta, going.

Negative voice.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma-ran, did not give; ma-yag, did not wish. The vowel of ma seems to be rather faint, and has a tendency to approach the initial vowel of the verb in sound; compare me ken-ken, didst not give; mu tutash, does not come.

Order of words.—The order of words is said to be comparatively free. The usual succession, however, is subject, object, verb.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff.

ΓNo. 39.7

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANĀSHĪ.

SPECIMEN I.

(G. C. L. Howell, Esq., 1907.)

I marshang-ka-di nyish chhang-sa tush. Phākuch chhog-sh twosons are. Smallson by own father-to One man-to kim-aj-sho-ka kan-ka hisa-p āng-z kesag.' Bā-sh 'nū bā. lon-mo. father, house-and-field-of share me-tothygive.' Father-by said, nyish chhanga-uj anu-ka lata-phata-p nyish banda-ga rān-mo. Dala dvārī property twoshares gives. **Few** dayssons-to owntwoanu-ka hisa-p kat shan-mo; dabaz-pheta dur hīpīch phākuch chhok-sh together made; son-by own sharethen far after smallZhaba par-deshang ānu-ka lata-phata-p chhigi-mī-pī-chi-mo. hed When anything-not-left. own property foreign-country wentanddīt dabode shan-mug, māl-ap sab-ap kharats dzaganga anu-ka then there made, allspent thatplace-at own property marshang $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{u}$ i ankālang poyak; $d\mathbf{u}$ gharib hashig. deshang That country-in manbefell; hepoor became. one famine rwang-m bo-ke-kon. Du marshang-s show-a sūr-ap yang-m rang feed-to That field-to swinelive-to went. man-by withKholang shon plen-mo; kholang-p sūr-as twat-ke-kon. za-zā anu nufilled; husksswine-by sent. Huskseating own belly thoseJabe duguj hosh bhur-muk; hāsi duguj chhige mā rān. anyone-by him-to sense him-to notWhen left; anything gave. thinda tush: du-gan-di burak, du-s lon-mo, ʻāka bā-di nonda 'my are; them-with came, him-by said, father-with so-many servants shigu-tak. Gu bhori odatosh, hed boda tosh. Gu wash $z\bar{a}$ -miz muchbreads. are,I hungry I eat-to andto-spare are. "nu āka bā. bung-tak, du-p lo-tak, chhabaya achi-tak ānu bā-di " O him say-will myfather, now arise-will own father-to go-will, Bhagwan kan sāmna sāmna kasūr shanmog; kan-ka nam-ap gu gu of-thee I before Godbefore sindid; I thy namepi-chi-gu-n." bā-di dul-miz ma rāik; ang-p thind Achig ānu servant make-me-thou." own father-near worthy; Arose say-to notme

bok. Bā-sh durats tang-mo, anu chbo-uj nark-dān-k, du anu-ka ment. Father-by far-from saw, oron son-for sorrow-came, heown chum-shige pai-shige. Chhok-sh chho-ka-di thor ran-mo bok lon-mo, went kissed hugged. Son-by said, son-to running gave sāmna Bhagwān-ka nark shan-mog; gu kan-ka 'nu aka kan bā, gu God-of did; · 0 my father, Ι of-thee before. evilthyBā-sh thinda-p chho-ka lāik ma-gek.' anu-ka lon-mo, 'shobila not-am.' Father-by servants-to said, son-of worthy own 'good lā-miz nu-ka prāt-pā shobila gāsa kang, nuguj rāņ; mundṛi lā-u, clothesgood bring, him-to to-wear give; hisfinger-on ring put,lā-u; ang-z zā-miz tung-miz kang. Gu khushi godinga zora de-tak, drink-to bring. \boldsymbol{I} foot-on shoes put; me-for eat-to merry make-shall, aka chho shigon, zaba shug-ashig; bigon zaba mil-ek.' Du-ka taĩs died.now alive-became; lost now found-was.' Him-of sake-for mykhushi ashig. zhā became. muchmerry

waktus du-ka teg chho show-a tot-kon. Zhabe Tes burak kimang hisbig80n field-in was. When came house That time bahiro chāge gitang-läge puzhak, tabo tshā-mek. Du-s i nerang outsidedancing then singing heard. near came, Him-by one āre-mo, hed du-dits richi-mo, 'chhuge shot-ke?' Du-s thindu-p 'what has-happened?' Him-by and him-from asked, servant called, bāu burak: kan bā-sh du-ka taĩs dugui lon-mo, 'kan zā-miz brotherthy father-by him-of said, ' thy came; sake-for him-to eat-to Kwe? du razi-khushi-deg hondes burak.' ran-mo. tung-miz Dugui Why? he safe-and-sound back drink-to gave. came. Him-to kubor burang ma-yag. gek, Du-ka nark-dan bā bahiro dwa-tā. evil-temper became, inside to-go not-wanted. Hisfather outsidecomes. shot-tā. Du-s ba-uj ʻgu lon-mo, kan-ka nonda arz du-s makes. Him-by him-by entreaty father-to said, $^{\cdot}I$ thy80-many shon-mek; gu kan-ka \mathbf{nits} nokri bhada umle ma shon-mek barsha did: Ithee of from order contrary did.service not years phākuch bakar ken-ken. duguj ānu-ka nāmi me mitārā-ui Ko smallgoat notgarest-to-me, that-for ever ownfriends-for Thou Jabe phākuch shotang. nu \mathbf{chho} burak, khushi yang-s anu-ka might-make. When that smallmerry 80 n came, whom-by own lata-phata-p betriga-uj ran-mo, \mathbf{hed} sab-ap wes-mo, ko du-ka taĩs women-to gave, and allproperty finished, thou him-of sake-for ran-tan.' tung-miz Du-s lon-mo, ʻaka zā-miz chho, ko ang rang drink-to givest.' Him-by eat-to said, 'my 80n, thoume with

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royo-tan; yang to aka māl, du sabe kan-ka. Ning-z sadā always dwellest; whatever ismy property, that all thine. Us-to shigon, āshigeg; kan-ka bau zabaiye shug-ashig; bigon, khusi merry-making became; brother dead, alive-became; thy now lost, lām-shig.' zaba now found-was.'

VOL. III, PART I. S M

[No. 40.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

KANĀSHĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(G. C. L. Howell, Esq., 1907.)

Ni-ka grāmang-ka nāma Malāni. Dugas dāragang moejanga.

Our village-of name Malāni. At-the-bottom hills middle-in.

Kultang-s hole bura-tash?

Kulu-from how come?

Nyish kāthī-ga tush; pahle Roshkoling kāthī, Chandarkhani. duja Twopasses are; firstRoshkoling pass, second Chandarkhani. Guna nvishi kāthī-gan-a to hed pom nark-nālang. Daba hāti bothpasses-on Winter-in snow anddangerous-are. Then anyone hed ning-z sukh-nek'. Jeshtang tutash, Āshlang mu pom khuleo-to: notcomes, and us-to peace-is. **Jeth** Hār snowmelts; bura-tak', nark shatant-sāhib nu Nito. borang ān comes. thatevilassistant-commissioner We28. loads to-carry lām-she-ta-kush, lham-she-ta-kush; tambu-p homap toreo-to, sab lokas tentsto-pitch-have, bears necessary-is, to-find-have; allpeople ashige; jang-sh nark-dān kot to; nuta nark wakt to. God-to evil-temper together become; is; thatvery eviltime

sab-a tek'. Ni-ka jang Phurangi si musalmana si bakras Our Godall-among great-is. White-men alsoMusalmans alsogoats ran-tash. Du-ka dzīmī du-ka mazāra-ga kultang tosh: du-ka him-of Him-of land tenantsin-Kulu give. are; him-of du-s Akbar bādshāh hätīs bhandarang to; ran-muk'. Kultang-za dzā it-for Akbartreasury is;king elephant gave. Kulu-people muchbho-ku-tash.

fear.

khare nark dukh ashig. Ι Pahle chorasug jang-s sane-muk'; miseryvery evilhappened. Formerly One thief God-by slew; i tophap sipahi-su-di sirkara-s sherā-muk'; jang-s du-gan-ka gunsoldiers-with one Government-by sent; God-by their sane-muk'. Jang khare khushi dek' kachara-ga-p khare wāt-k. Godslew. muchmuch laughed. merry becamemuleskhare uta. Anu-ka Kultang-za tokap betri-kash lugri-kash foolish-are. much Their Kulu-men rupees women-on lugri-on

Jabe bārīya korang pang-m bong-tash, shotash. kharats mukadma-kash When baris rentcollect-to make. spent go, cases-on bakras goju-tang. Dāba shabri-ka mulang jar $_{
m ni}$ jar da luția-tang; daywe-eat. Perhaps. meat-of costgoatdaywethen we-loot; egu-tak'? Dabadze Kultang-za uta-tosh. hāse kateo-tang; korang-ngaz Anyhow Kulu-men fools-are. knows? whom-by we-cut; rent-from Sabka-nits akli ni-tong; ni bho-kutang. Aslīs he riwāj. Ni-ka All-from are-feared. Reallywisewe-are; wewe different custom. Us extstyle ofchhigi fikri tashang. egu-tang; chhigi mo matter what is. know; anything not

gling tugu-tang Lugri mu tugu-tang; nenkto. Ni-ka sara drink-we, Rice-beer not drink-we; barley-beer thusis. custom Our Rigin nashing Ni-ka nvish pachi-ga tosh. lage-tang. gling Us-of assembliesare. Uppersitting barley-beer get-drunk-we. twoKōra-nashing ni to; duia Rigin-nashing du-ka nāma pachinga is; otherLower-house Upper-house nameits $assembly \cdot in$ kārmishtas pujyara gyāra marshang nashi-ta-mung, Rigin jang lo-tang. karmishta priestwe-sit, placeeleven men Uppersay. golang Kirmishtas nu hed ieshtas. barta sat gur way-in The-kirmishta thisheadmen. under-prophet andseven prophet du-ka chho-p ra-deo shig, Karmishtas ashio-tak'. mukar son the-community dead, his**Karmishta** becomes. appointed zhubang marshang-s chotrang-nga dzigek; nyish shum sabush barley-stalks men-by take; twothreecouncil-platform-in all-by karmishtas-ka chho-ui Gur's gur-ka gut-pā ran-kek'. kat-kek'; hand-in karmishta-of son-for Gur-by give. gur-of cut; Pujyara nu chhigi mai. pagringa ran-muk'. \mathbf{He} sara thisPriestnot-is. gives. Other customany $pagri \cdot in$ pujyara hāl karmishtas, de mukar ashio-to; golanga thuspriest karmishta, appointed becomes; asway-in ashio-to. becomes.

Barta hāse pi-cheu-tak'?

Barta whom-by chooses?

jeshta-p рi pi-cheu-tang; pi-cheu-tang; ni Nigur-p alsojeshtas Wechoose; gurchoose; wepi-cheutang. we-choose.

Karmishṭasu-ka chhuge kām?

Karmishṭa-of what work?

VOL. III, PART I.

Puja sho-tak'. ti ko-tak', pachinga nashi-tak', theka-p Worship performs, water brings, assembly-in sits, revenue mukadba-p sab-up grà-m bong-tak', shan-m bong-tak', jeshtap collect-to 9008, cases decide-to goes, jeshtas all kat sha-tak'. makes. together

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our village is called Malana; it is in a deep valley.

How do you get to it from Kulu?

By two passes, the first is called Roshkoling, the other Chandarkhani. Both are covered with snow in the winter, and are dangerous. Then foreigners cannot come in, and we are at peace. In Jeth and Har the snow melts, the Assistant Commissioner comes; that is bad. We have to carry loads, pitch tents, find bears; everyone is upset; Jang is angry; an evil time.

Our God is very great; even Englishmen and Muhammadans give him goats. He has lands and tenants in Kulu, and a treasury to which king Akbar gave an elephant. The Kulu people revere him greatly.

Once a dreadful thing happened; the God slew a thief; the Government sent soldiers with a gun; the God slew their mules; the God was much pleased and laughed loudly.

The Kulu people are foolish. They spend their money on women, beer, and cases. When our *Bari* goes to collect our revenue, we loot them, eating goats daily. Perhaps we cut the price of our meat from their rents, who knows? Anyhow they are fools.

Our customs are different; we are the wisest people in the world, and we are much respected. We do not know anything really, but what matter.

Our customs are as follows. We do not drink rice beer, but get drunk on barley beer. We have two assemblies; the upper assembly we call the $Rig\bar{\imath}n$ Nashing, the other the $K\bar{o}ra$ Nashing. In the $Rig\bar{\imath}n$ Nashing sit eleven men, the Karmishta, the Pujyara, the Gur, the Barta, and seven Jeshtas.

The Karmishta is thus elected. The dead Karmishta's son is taken by the Ra Deo to the council platform. Two or three men bring two or three stalks of barley and give them to the Gur, and he puts them in the Karmishta's son's pagri. There is no other ceremony.

The Pujyara is thus elected. He is elected like the Karmishta.

Who chooses the Barta?

We choose him, and also the Gur and the Jeshtas.

What are the duties of the Karmishta?

He conducts service, brings water (from Kanaur), presides at the assembly, collects revenue, conducts cases, and gathers the *Jeshṭas* together.

MANCHĀŢĪ OR PAŢNĪ.

Manchat or Patan is a portion of British Lahul adjacent to Chamba Lahul. It is situated on both sides of the united Chandra-Bhaga. The dialect spoken in that district is known as Manchāṭī or Paṭnī. A similar dialect is spoken in the portion of Lahul within the Chamba State, and it will be dealt with immediately after Manchāṭī.

The number of speakers of Manchātī in Kangra was estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 2.995. The corresponding figure at the 1901 Census was 2.441.

genitive suffix gyi in Tibetan. The form dz is common after ng, and z, or dropping of the consonant appears to be usual after vowels. The specimens are not, however, consistent, and we must leave the question to be solved on the base of further research.

The final consonants in words such as tot', is; siyatek', he was dead, are only half pronounced.

We have no information about the existence of tones and about the accent.

Articles.—The numeral idi, i, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by using demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses.

Nouns.—The prefix a seems to be little used. I have only noted it in the Tibetan word a-gu, uncle.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words or by means of qualifying additions. Thus, $ri\underline{t}\underline{s}a$, he-goat; $l\bar{a}$, she-goat: bang-da, bull; $goan^a$, cow: rhang, horse; nabran, mare: khui, dog; $mingar\tilde{a}$ -khui, bitch.

Number.—There are apparently two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is re after vowels, <u>dze</u> after ng, and <u>de</u> after n. Thus, <u>mi-re</u>, men; <u>rhang-dze</u>, horses; <u>nabran-de</u>, mares. It seems probable that the various consonants of the suffix represent different cases. Compare the remarks on Chamba Lăhuļi in what follows. The case suffixes apparently coalesce with the plural suffix. The cases of the plural therefore differ from the singular.

Case.—The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by means of any suffix. The dative is, however, sometimes used as an accusative; thus, gye do-u yo-bi mast tarab-tsi teng-ri-ga, I have beaten his son with many stripes.

The subject of transitive verbs is put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding a suffix which occurs as \underline{dzi} , zi, \underline{tsi} , and i. The form \underline{tsi} is used in the plural and often also in the singular, zi and i after vowels; and \underline{dzi} once after a vowel. It is probably the regular form after ng. Thus, $ngye \cdot \underline{tsi}$, by us; $ba \cdot zi$, by the father; $do \cdot i$, by him. The Chamba transcript of the Parable always uses i after vowels; thus, $yo \cdot i$, by the son. See below.

The same suffix is used to denote the instrument, and also in order to form an ablative. Thus, $t^a r a b - \underline{t} \underline{s} i$, with stripes; $b \bar{a} \cdot u \ do - r - \underline{t} \underline{s} i$, father-of there-from (compare Hindi $yah\tilde{a} \ s\bar{e}$), from the father; $khuang - \underline{d} \underline{z} i$, from the well.

The various forms of this suffix can apparently be explained from the Tibetan gyis. The suffix of the dative is bi; thus, ba-bi, to the father. In the plural we find ting instead; thus, nokar-ting, to the servants. Ting apparently corresponds to the singular suffix ring or rī, and is probably a terminative suffix.

The suffix of the genitive is u or o, before which a final ng and r are doubled; thus, mi-u, of a man; sarg-o-e, heaven-of and; rhang-ngu, of a horse; nagarrau, of the village. In rang-ngu-tog-ting, on a horse, tog-ting is the postposition. The plural ends in tu; thus, $b\bar{a}a$ -tu, of fathers.

The suffix of the terminative is r; thus, do-r, there; der, here. It is probably contained in or identical with the suffix rang, ring, ri, plural tang, ting, which is used in the sense of a terminative and locative. Thus, $gharb\bar{a}r$ -rang, in the house; pun-dza-ring, on the top; rhi-ring, into the fields; $y\bar{a}r$ -tang sate, friends-in together, together with my friends; nokar-ting, to the servants; gur-ting, on the hands.

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Mr. Diack mentions a genitive suffix nn and a locative suffix ang. They have probably been inferred from forms such as kan-u, thy; ghar-rang, in the house, and are perhaps due to misunderstanding.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are bichang, among (Hindī bīch); poyang, under; kachang, near; thale, behind; thal-zi, on account of; tui, before, and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify. Thus, <u>tshangsi rhang-ngu</u>, of the white horse; i mā-zhi yo, a bad boy. Note the final i in many adjectives.

The particle of comparison is be or be- \underline{tsi} ; compare Bunán basta. Thus, du-beruthe, him-than good, better; $d\bar{o}$ -u $k\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ $d\bar{o}$ -u ring-be- \underline{tsi} tham tot, his brother his sisterthan tall is; ruthe be- \underline{tsi} ruthe kham, good than good cloth, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. In addition to jut, two, we also find nyi in nyi-za, two-tens, twenty; nyi-nyi-zau $s\bar{a}$, two twenties ten, fifty. The latter compound shows that higher numbers are counted in twenties, as is also the case in Kanāw^arī.

The numerals precede the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Ordinary.	Respectful.					
	recepectrui.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	ngye-na-re	
дуе 		ngye-ku	$ngyeng\cdot gn$	ngye-re		
ka	kye-na		kyeng-gu		kye-na-re	
<i>Iu</i>		do-ku		do-re		
k	a	kye-na	kye-na	kye-na kyeng-gu	kye-na kyeng-gu	

Other forms are gye, by me; gye-bi, to me; gye-u, gyi-u, my; $ngye-\underline{ts}i$, by us; ngye-tu, our; ka-i, ke-i, by thee; kan-ing, to thee; kanu, keno, thy; $kye-\underline{ts}i$, by you; kye-tu, your; do-i, by him; do-u, his; do-bi, him; eno, own; $do-\underline{ts}i$, by them; do-tu, their, and so forth. The form do-ku-tu, of them, contains a suffix which perhaps corresponds to gon in Kanāwarī do-gon, they. Compare u-ku, kisses?

Demonstrative pronouns are di, this; du, do, that, and probably also nu, that. Note also the use of do as a definite article in instances such as gye-u do ba-u do-r, my that father-of there, to my father.

Interrogative pronouns are a-ri, who? $\tilde{a}u$, which? a-tu, whose? chhi, what? \tilde{a} -u-r, where? a-pel, when? tai, how many? anyo, how much, how many? and so forth. The interrogative pronouns are made indefinite by adding la or le; thus, a-tsi-la, by anyone; chhal-le, anything; a-pel-la, ever.

The interrogative pronouns are also used as relatives. Thus, $m\bar{a}l$ -o anyo banta gyebi pipad $r\bar{a}u$, property of how-great share me-to comes give, give me the share that falleth to me; $du\ k\bar{n}ol$ -zi $\bar{a}u\ sungar$ -re zoa-to-re, by those husks which the swine ate; $di\ yo\ ati\ a\bar{u}$ -tsi kanu māl phukeg-ti, this son came by-whom thy property was wasted;

au bela-ring, what time-in, when. Such constructions are, of course, due to the influence of the neighbouring Aryan vernaculars.

Verbs.—The verb is in all essential points a noun. The subject of transitive verbs is accordingly commonly put in the case of the agent, and there is no separate passive. There are, however, traces of a somewhat different state of affairs, just as is the case in Kanāwarī and, to some extent, in the Almora dialects. The various persons are commonly distinguished by adding pronominal suffixes, viz., ga or g for the first, na or n for the second, and g or nothing for the third person singular. In the plural we find g or g for the first and second persons, and g or g for the third.

Ga, na, and d are the bases of the personal pronouns. Ni, on the other hand, is probably a verb substantive, and re is perhaps identical with the common plural suffix, or else it is a verb substantive. Compare Tibetan red.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are shu, and tot. The final t of this word is only half pronounced. Ni, which is used as a suffix of the first and second persons plural, is perhaps also a verb substantive. Compare also ag in a-pag, comes, etc.

The regular inflexion of the verb substantive will be seen from the table which follows:—

				PRESENT.	Past.			
			Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.		
1st person	•	•	shu-ga	sh u- ni	to-e-ga	to-e-ni		
2nd person	•	•	shu-na	shu-ni	to-e-na	to-e-ni		
3rd person		•	shu-d	shu-re	to-e	to-e-re		

Forms such as to-d, is, are also used in the third person plural. In the specimen we find to-i, they were, and so forth.

The base to apparently also has the form ta. Compare the instances under the head of present time below.

Finite verb.—The inflexion of finite verbs is to a great extent effected by adding the verb substantive.

Present time.—The present tense is often formed by adding the personal suffixes of the present tense of the verb substantive to the participles or verbal nouns ending in ba, pa, dza, a, etc. Thus, teng-bo-g, I strike; pi-pa-d, he comes; ngye-tsi teng-dza-to-ni, we are striking; roag-tsa to-re, they are grazing; eye teng-dzi thareg-shra to-g, I am going on to strike; gye yoā to-g, I go; kye-tsi teng-dza tani, you strike, and so forth. Note the suffix ak' or ag, probably a form of the verb substantive, in the third person singular in forms such as yoak', he goes; a-pag, he comes; bang-dzag, he dwells.

Past time.—The usual suffix of past time is i. Thus, lha-i-ga, I have done; ra-i-na, gavest; il-i-ni, you went, and so forth. The list of words gives il-i, went.

I is preceded by s in khog-s-i-ri, has been found.

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Instead of *i* we often find fuller forms such as ri, zi, ti, di, and di. Thus, teng-ri-ga, I have beaten; sha-ri-na, thou killedest; shring-ri, he has become alive; bhatte kharchek shu-bi le-ti, all expended to-be began, he had spent almost all; phu-keg-ti, squandered; tsar-ti, sent; chen-di, entreated; tha-di, and tha-zi, heard; pi-di, arrived. I am not able to state which form is the original one.

A compound past is also formed by adding the past tense of the verb substantive to the verbal nouns ending in ma, a, etc. The past base of the verb substantive in such cases has the form te. Thus, $a-\underline{tsi}-la$ ma ram-ma-te-r, anyone by not gave-they, nobody gave; teng-nga te-g, I struck; teng-nga-tek, he struck; $s\bar{t}ya-te$, he had died, and so forth.

Formssuch as *lha-to-g*, I have done; *shea-to*, he has killed; *zea-to-re*, they ate; *anja-d*, he has come; *shringa-d*, he has become alive, are identical with the present.

Compound past tenses are *lha-s-i to-d*, it is made; *yhō-shri-te*, being lost he was, he had been lost.

Future.—The base alone is apparently used as a future; thus, yo-g, I shall go; kuo-g, I shall say. Such forms perhaps contain a suffix o. Another future is formed by adding mo, i.e. the suffix of a participle or verbal noun; thus, teng-mo-g, I shall beat.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus *ila*, go, *jo*, walk. Commonly, however, the suffix u is added; thus, $r\tilde{a}$ -u, give; sha-u, kill, etc. Sometimes the u is nasalized. Thus, $b^a r a \tilde{u}$, sit.

Instead of u we sometimes find tu; thus, lep-tu, take; hu-tu, take out.

Forms such as hata-ni, bring; ra-ni, put on, are plural. Compare the suffix ni which is used in the second person plural in finite verbs.

Verbal nouns and participles.—Verbal nouns are commonly formed by adding postpositions to the base; thus, shu-bi, to be; i-bi, to go; teng-zi, to strike; roag-tsi, to feed; kuti-mi, to say, and pingdi, to fill.

The suffix zi, $\underline{ts}i$ in teng-zi, to strike, $roag-\underline{ts}i$, to feed, is probably the suffix of the case of the agent and of the ablative. The same suffix is apparently used to form conjunctive participles. It occurs in several forms such as $\underline{dz}i$, \underline{je} , \underline{che} , \underline{shi} , \underline{e} , and \underline{i} . Thus, \underline{shu} - \underline{che} , having become; \underline{han} - \underline{je} , having brought; \underline{ku} - \underline{che} , having said; \underline{yho} - \underline{shri} - \underline{te} , being-lost was, had been lost; \underline{pha} - \underline{e} , dividing; \underline{tang} - \underline{e} , having seen; \underline{ku} - \underline{i} , said; \underline{tha} - \underline{i} , made. Compare the past tense.

Verbal nouns are freely used in the formation of tenses. The most common form ends in a suffix which occurs as <u>dza</u>, <u>tsa</u>, cha, shra, and a. Thus ngye-<u>tsi</u> teng-<u>dza</u> ta-ni, us-by beating is-by-us, we beat; roag-<u>tsa</u> to-re, they are grazing; gye teng-<u>dza</u> te-g, me-by striking was-my, I had struck; gye teng-<u>dza</u> to-tog, I am striking; joa to-g, I am going; teng-nga te-g, striking was-I, I struck, and so forth.

Such forms are also used as conjunctive participles. Thus, teng-dza, having struck; $a\underline{ts}a$, having arisen; roshreg-shra, having got angry, and so forth.

Similar verbal nouns are also formed by adding one of the suffixes ma, mo, and ba, bo, pa. Compare Tibetan. Thus, ma ram-ma-te-r, not giving were, they did not give; teng-mo-g, I shall strike; si- $v\bar{a}$ -to-g, I am dying; teng-bo-g, I strike; pi-pa-d, he comes, and so forth.

A suffix eg or ek is used to form a kind of participle. Thus, roshreg(-shra), (having got) angry; kharch-ek, finished; thar-eg-shra, remaining; tor-eg-kate, I vol. III, Part I.

transgressed. It is apparently only used with loan-words. Compare also dorkyeke, running. Note finally shu-tar shu-tar, being; teng-zi-tar, beating; ku-nyi-tar or kutar, on saying.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Gye teng-sa yo-g, I shall be struck, literally means 'I striking shall-go' and is an almost literal translation of the Aryan idiom.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma. Thus, ma ra-i-na, gavest not. The negative imperative is formed by prefixing tha; thus, tha lha-u, make not.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Numerals, adjectives, and demonstrative pronouns precede the qualified word. The introduction of relative clauses has occasioned some change in the original Tibeto-Burman collocation of words and sentences.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 532 and ff. The former will be followed by a short account of the Chamba dialect.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

MANCHĀŢĪ.

(Rev. A. W. Heyde, 1899.)

(DISTRICT LAHUL.)

kuṛ-i. Ι mi-u Do-rang do-i jut yo to-i. Do-ku-tu bichang-zi him-by said. One man-of two sons were. Them-of among-from ba-bi kur-i, 'e ba, bare māl-o anvo banta gye-bi younger him-by father-to said, 'O father, property-of how-much share me-to Do-i mal do-ku-ting phae Do-rang thore dheva-rau pipad, rãu.' rã-i. Him-by property them-to dividing gave. comes, give.' Then fewdays-of thale vo-zi bhatte jama lha-i, waitāre mulk-o siphir behind younger son-by alltogether made, one distant country-of journey lha-i, u-i do-r mazhi <u>ts</u>alan-ring Ã-u bela-ring enomāl phukeg-ti. own property bad behaviour-in squandered. made, and there What time-in bhatte kharchek shu-bi le-ti, dēsha-ring angā (do shu-che ili. Do-rang to-be began, (that country-in famine becoming went. finished Then il-i). drāld shu-che Do-rang du dēsh-o i do raïs-o $do \cdot r$ il-je, he destitute becoming went). Thenthat country-of one chief-of there going, eno rhi-ring sungar roag-tsi tsar-ti. Do-u manshā to-i, field-inswine to-feed sent. him-by Hismind was, those husks-with ã-u sungare-re zoa-to-re, eno khog pingmog; a-tsi-la do-bi chhal-le ma which swineate, own belly will-fill; anyone-by him-to anything not Do-rang ram-ma-te-r. hosha-ring kuri, 'gye-u anje gave.Then having-come said, senses-in 'my father-of how-many kam-lha-zāṛ-ting mhassan roṭi to-t'; gye yo-nyi si-vā-to-g. Gye much bread is; I hungering die. Ihaving-arisen u-i do-bi kuo-g, "e ba, ba-u yo-g gye my that father-of with will-go and him-to will-say, "O father, I heaven-of-and ka-nu kachang gunā lha-i-ga. En-teg yhatsa kanu yo kuṭi-mi jog did-I. thy *before* sinNowagain thy son to-say worthy not Gye-bi kanu kam-lha-zare-tu bichang idi-rang barabar lha-u." Do-rang Meamong one-with like make." servants-of Then having-arisen ba-u do-r ili. enou A-ita du waitā-re to-i, du tang-e do-u ba-bi his father-of there went. Still he farwas, him seeing his father-to pity dorkyeke dou muthu bi gril-ranye mbassan uku rã-i. do-bi Yo-zi came, running him Son-by him-to neck toclasped muchkiss gave. bā, gye sarg-o-e kanu tui lha-i-ga. Enteg yhatsa gunā 'O father, I heaven-of-and thy before sin have-done. Nowagain VOL. III, PART I. 3 n 2

eno nokar-ting kuri, 'ruthe betsi kanu yo kuti-mi jog ma to-g.' Ba-zi Father-by his servants-to said, 'good from thy son to-say worthy not am.' gure-ting ruthe kham hanje hatani do-bi kham ra-ni, gu-i-thab goodcloth bringing-out bringhim-to clothesgive, hand-on ring khushi kondza-ring paula, $\mathbf{u}i$ tshoï rendzasha-u zao-ni, lhau-ni. foot-on fat killeat, merry make. shoe, and calfChha-u-thal-zi ku-i-ni-sai-ta, $\mathrm{d}\mathbf{i}$ gye-u yo siyatek', enteg shringad: What-of-reason-for thismy was-dead, now became-alive; saying, sonkhushi lha-i yho-shrite, enteg khog-siri.' Do-rang do-<u>ts</u>i le-ti-re. was-lost, now was-found. Then them-by merry making began.

Do-u more yo rhi-ring to-i. Apele chum-mu kachang pi-ri, big son field-in was. When house-of Hisnear came, singing-and garpimi chālā tha-zi. Do-rang i pargar-bi, 'ata,' kuche rug-ti, 'di chhi shud?' Then one servant-to, 'come,' saying asked, 'this what is-it?' dancing sound heard. do-bi kuri, 'kanu noa anjad; kanu ba-zi tshoï rendza Him-by him-to said, 'thy younger-brother has-come; thy father-by fat calfDu roshreg-shra du raji-baji khog-si-mi thal-zi.' i-bi tong has-killed, him safe finding sake-for.' Hegetting-angry inside to-go ma tha-di. Do-rang do-u ba dag-ting anje dou chen-di. Do-i ba-bi his father outside coming him entreated. Him-by father-to not heard. Then landing ku-ri, 'khã-u, dhono barsha gye kanu tellha-to-g. A-pel-la kanu answer said, 'lo. those years I thy service done-have. Ever hukum ma toreg-kate. Kai apel-la i la-u la-tsa gye-bi ma ra-i-na, bhai, order not transgressed. Thee-by ever one goat-of kid me-to not gavest, that, "kenau yāre-tang sate khushi lha-u." A-pele kanu di yo ati, "thy friends-with together merry make." What-time thy this son came, whom-by kanu mazhi tsāla-ring phu-keg-ti, ka-i do-u thal-zi tshoï rendza bad behaviour-in squandered, thee-by his sake-for fat thy property Do-i do-bi ku-ri, 'e yo, ka hamesha-ring gyeu ka-chang to-to-na. sha-ri-na.' killed-hast.' Him-by him-to said, 'O son, thou always me-of near linest. chhi to-t', du kanu shud. Par khushi lha-i khushi shu-bi jushi do-r Me-of place-at what is, that thine is. But merry making merry to-be proper to-i; chha-u thal-zi ku-i-ni-saita, di kanu noa sivate, du what-of sake-for said-if, thisthy younger-brother was-dead, he yho-shri-te, enteg khog-si-ri. shring-ri; became alive; was-lost, now found-is.'

CHAMBA LĀHUĻĪ.

The majority of the inhabitants of the Chamba State speak Aryan dialects. There are, besides, some speakers of Tibetan and of a dialect which is almost identical with Manchāṭī. The latter is spoken in the north-east of the State. The number of speakers was estimated at 1,387 during the preliminary operations of this Survey, and it was returned as 1,543 at the last Census of 1901.

AUTHORITY-

BAILEY, REV. T. GRAHAME, B.D., M.R.A.S., - The Languages of Chamba State. Calcutta, 1905.

The Rev. T. Grahame Bailey has written a full account of the dialect which he proposes to call Chamba Lāhuļī. He has kindly allowed me to make use of it for the notes which follow. He has also been good enough to allow me to reprint a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of Standard Words and Phrases. See below on pp. 465 and ff., 533 and ff.

Chamba Lāhuļī is almost identical with Manchāṭī. The Chamba copy of the Manchāṭī version of the parable mentioned above is probably meant to be an illustration of Chamba Lāhuļī. It will therefore be sufficient to make but a few remarks.

Articles.—The numeral $\bar{\imath}$, one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ $mi\tilde{\vec{u}}$, of a man; $\bar{\imath}$ $s\bar{a}h\bar{u}k\bar{a}r\bar{e}$, a money lender.

Nouns.—The inflexion of nouns is in most particulars the same as in Manchāțī.

Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished in the usual way; thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $y\bar{a}$, mother: rhiz, male goat; $l\bar{a}$, female goat: tar- $bh\bar{i}r$, male cat; $bh\bar{i}r$, female cat: $\underline{ts}h\bar{a}h$, horse; nab- $rh\tilde{a}$, mare: $y\bar{o}$, son; $m\bar{i}l$ - $y\bar{o}$, daughter, and so on.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and plural. The plural is not expressed when it appears from the context; thus, $h\bar{a}th\bar{i}$, elephant, and elephants. The usual plural suffix is r; thus, $rh\tilde{i}$, sister; $rh\tilde{i}$ -r, sisters: $m\tilde{i}l$ - $y\tilde{o}$, daughter; $m\tilde{i}l$ - $y\tilde{o}r$, daughters.

Case.—The cases of the singular and of the plural differ in the same way as in Manchātī.

The subject of intransitive verbs and the object are not distinguished by adding suffixes. The subject of transitive verbs, on the other hand, is put in the case of the agent, which is said to be formed by adding \underline{ts} or, after vowels, \tilde{e} in the singular and z in the plural; thus, $rh\tilde{a}$ - \underline{ts} , by a horse; $b\bar{a}\cdot\bar{e}$, by a father; $m\bar{\imath}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ - \bar{e} , by a daughter; $rh\bar{a}nez$, by the horses; $m\bar{\imath}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ -z, by the daughters; $s\bar{u}ra$ -z, by the swine.

The suffix of the dative is vi or bi; plural $d\tilde{i}$; thus, $rh\tilde{i}$ -vi and $rh\tilde{i}$ -bi, to a sister; $rh\tilde{a}ne$ - $d\tilde{i}$, to horses; $m\tilde{i}l$ - $y\tilde{o}$ - $d\tilde{i}$, to daughters. $Ph\tilde{i}$ is used instead in $rh\tilde{a}$ - $ph\tilde{i}$, to a horse.

The suffix of the genitive is u or \bar{o} , plural du; thus, $rh\tilde{a}$ -u, of a horse; $b\bar{a}$ - \bar{o} , of a father; $m\tilde{\imath}\tilde{u}$, of a man $(m\tilde{\imath}, \text{man})$; $m\bar{\imath}l$ - $y\bar{o}$ -du, of daughters. The genitive can also be expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix; thus, $h\bar{a}th\bar{\imath}$, of an elephant; $s\tilde{a}s\bar{\imath}$ $rh\bar{a}n$ $pal\bar{a}nz$, the white horse's saddle. The final n of $rh\bar{a}n$ is probably developed from the nasal sound in $rh\tilde{a}$, horse.

The ablative is formed by adding dots, i.e., dorts therefrom, to the base or to the genitive; thus, $rh\tilde{a}-dots$, from a horse; $b\tilde{a}-\tilde{o}$ dots, from a father. Dots is by origin an ablative of the demonstrative pronoun du, do, and the actual suffix is ts as in the case of the agent.

A terminative and locative are formed by adding $r\bar{\imath}$, $ar\bar{\imath}$; thus, konz $ar\bar{\imath}$, on the foot; $n\bar{o}karar\bar{\imath}$, to the servants; $rh\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, in the field. A shorter suffix r occurs in $d\bar{e}-r$, here; du-r, there, etc. It is perhaps connected with $r\bar{a}$, plural da in $nu-r\bar{a}$, on that side, $d\bar{\imath}-r\bar{a}$, on this side; $g\bar{e}-r\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with me; $rh\bar{\imath}-r\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with his sister; $y\bar{a}ra-da$ $s\bar{a}d\bar{e}$, with my friends.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are *andrez*, in; $har\bar{e}$, beside; $p\bar{o}e\tilde{a}$, under; thale, on account of; $thal\bar{e}$, behind; $toth\bar{i}$, upon; $t\bar{u}\bar{i}$, before, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the word they qualify; thus, $s\tilde{a}s\tilde{\iota}$ $rh\tilde{a}$, the white horse. The particle of comparison is $v\tilde{e}$; thus, $rh\tilde{\iota}$ $v\tilde{e}$ $m\tilde{o}r\tilde{e}$, sister than big, bigger than the sister.

Numerals.—The first numerals are given in the list of words. 'Two' is also $n\bar{\imath}$, compare $s\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, twelve; $n\bar{\imath}$ - $rh\bar{a}$, two hundred. Other numerals are $s\bar{e}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ d $\bar{\imath}$, eleven, sha-shrum, thirteen; $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{\imath}$, fourteen; sang, fifteen; $s\bar{a}$ - $tr\bar{u}\bar{\imath}$, sixteen; $s\bar{a}$ - $nh\bar{\imath}$, seventeen; $s\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$, eighteen, sos- $k\bar{u}$, nineteen. Higher numbers are counted in twenties. Ordinals are formed by adding $m\bar{\imath}$; thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{\imath}$, first; jur- $m\bar{\imath}$, second; shrum- $m\bar{\imath}$, third.

)110 u	LILD			Percenta pron			
			I	We	Thou	You	He	They
Nom			$gar{e}$	yer or nyer	ka, ku	ker	du	vor
Agent	•	•	g $ar{i}, g$ $ar{e}$	yez or nyez	$ \vec{k}ar{ ilde{e}} $	kez	$dar{o}i$	doz
Genitive			$gear{u},\ gear{o}$	yedu or	ko, kēno	$k \epsilon du$	$d\bar{o}, d\bar{o}$ -u	$d\bar{o}du$

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

nyendu.

Note also $\bar{e}n\bar{o}$, own. The Rev. A. H. Francke informs me that there are also dual forms of the pronouns, and, moreover, both exclusive and inclusive forms of the dual and plural of the first person. Thus, nyegu, I and he; nyenggu, I and thou; kyenggu, you two; doku, they two; yer, nyer, I and they; nyenar(e), I and you; ker(e), kyenar(e), you.

Demonstrative pronouns are di, this; du, that, and nu, that compare nuar, there; $nu-r\bar{a}$, on that side, etc.). Note $d\bar{o}$ $d\bar{e}sh\bar{a}-r\bar{\iota}$, in that country, where the demonstrative precedes the qualified noun in the genitive.

Interrogative and indefinite pronouns are $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, who? az, by whom? $\bar{a}du$, $\bar{a}duh$ and $\bar{a}d\bar{o}$, whose? $a\tilde{u}$, which? chhi, what? $chh\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, why? $chhi\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$, how much? $t\bar{e}m\bar{\imath}$, how many? $chh\bar{a}$, something; chhalla, anything. The interrogative pronouns can also be used as relatives; thus, $a\tilde{u}$ $gh\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ chumh $kach\bar{a}$ $p\bar{\imath}$, what time house near came, when he approached the house; $any\bar{o}$ $m\bar{a}l$ $g\bar{e}-b\bar{\imath}$ $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{a}$ $g\bar{e}-b\bar{\imath}$ $ra\tilde{u}$, how-much property me-to comes me-to give, give me the property that falls to me.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is the same as in Manchātī. The pronominal suffixes added in order to distinguish the person of the subject are g, k, ga, or nothing for the first; n and na for the second; d, $d\tilde{o}$, or nothing for the third person singular; ni for the first and second, and r for the third person plural.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are shu and to or ta. Compare the table which follows:—

	Present			Post.
Sing. ! shu-k	todō, tō. ta	tad a	tēig	tareg
2 shu-n	todon	talan	t in	taren
$3 \stackrel{\checkmark}{\downarrow} sh\bar{u}$ $sh\bar{u}$ $sh\bar{u}$ - \bar{i}	to d. tō, tō ī	†a.l∂	<i>t</i> − ī	tarē
Plur. 1 shunai	todoni	tadoni	†&ini	tureni
2 shunni	todoni	tudoni	iōini	tu reni
3 shūr	todor	tador	tōi r	tarer

Forms such as tod tot are also used in the plural. Forms such as todoni, tadoni, we are, are compounds containing the base to, ta, and an auxiliary do which is probably originally identical.

Finite verb.—The verb substantive plays a considerable rôle in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The present tense is formed by adding $d\bar{o}$, d, followed by the personal suffixes to the base or to a participle ending in $p\bar{a}$, $b\bar{a}$, \bar{a} , etc. Thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{o}$, and $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -do-g, I fall; $d\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -do-n, thou fallest; ra- $m\bar{a}$ -d, he gives; shuja-d, it is done; $lh\bar{a}$ -do-r, they do. Forms such as ra- $m\bar{a}$ -d, he gives, show that the third person singular is formed by adding the personal suffix directly to the participle; compare also $p\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{a}$, comes; $br\bar{a}$, lives. The latter form is identical with the base.

The participles used in the formation of the present tense can also be described as verbal nouns. A form such as $sh\bar{\imath}$ -do-g, I take away, can literally be translated 'taking-off-is-by-me.'

Past time.—A simple past is formed by adding $\bar{\imath}$ and subjoining the personal suffixes; thus, $k\bar{u}-\bar{\imath}-g$, I said; $th\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-n$, thou heardest; $th\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-ni$, we, you heard. The suffix $\bar{\imath}$ often coalesces with a preceding vowel in various ways; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-g$, I came; $r\bar{e}$, he gave; $lh\bar{e}-r$, they did; $lh\bar{e}-na$ and $lh\bar{e}-n$, didst. Similarly we also find $t\bar{a}ng-g$, I saw.

The termination of the third person is $r\bar{\imath}$, plural ra, after s-sounds; thus, khos- $\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$, he was found; khos- $\bar{\imath}$ -re, they were found; roshēsh $\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$, he got angry.

A compound past is formed by adding do, da; to, ta to the base and conjugating throughout; thus, shu- $t\tilde{o}$, I became; shu-ton, becames; shu- $t\tilde{o}$; became; shuton, we, you, became; shutor, they became; $z\tilde{e}$ -da, I ate; $z\tilde{e}$ -dan, atest; $z\tilde{e}$ - $d\tilde{o}$, ate; $z\tilde{e}$ -dan, we, you, ate; $z\tilde{e}$ -dor, they ate.

Instead of da, etc., we sometimes find ja, etc.; thus, anja, I came; anjad, he came. The most common past tense is apparently formed by adding deg (teg), etc., to the base or to a verbal noun ending in ā, pā, bā, mā, zā, tsā, etc. Thus, ā-bā-de-g, I came; ra-mā-dē, he gave; tsā-tsā-der, they sent.

Deg is by origin a past tense of the base da, which is used as a verb substantive. It can also be added to conjunctive participles; thus, $p\bar{\imath}-j\bar{\imath}-de-g$, having-come-was-I, I came. Instead of deg, etc., we also find dig, etc., in andig, I came, etc.

An *l*-suffix occurs in forms such as $\bar{\imath}$ -le \bar{a} , $\bar{\imath}$ -lead, and $\bar{\imath}$ -l $\bar{\imath}$, he went; $th\bar{a}$ -le-g, I heard, and so on. It perhaps belongs to the base.

Future.—The future is formed by adding o to the base or to the verbal noun ending in \bar{a} , etc. The suffix of the third person singular is $d\bar{o}$ or du. Thus, $y\bar{o}$ -g, I shall go; $y\bar{o}$ -n, wilt go; $y\bar{u}$ -du, will go; $d\bar{a}$ -poni, we shall fall; $r\bar{a}$ -mor, they will give. Forms such as $n\bar{e}$ -ni, we shall know; kier, they will leave, etc., are by origin indefinite.

Imperative.—The imperative is formed by adding \bar{o} , u; thus, $ra\tilde{u}$, give; $lha\bar{o}$, do; $ke\bar{o}$, leave. A suffix $d\ddot{o}$ is used instead in $\bar{a}d\ddot{o}h$, come; $h\bar{a}d\ddot{o}$, bring.

The base alone is apparently used in il, go.

The verbal noun ending in pa, etc., can also be used as an imperative; thus, $d\bar{a}pa$, fall.

A plural imperative is formed by adding ni or $\acute{a}ni$; thus, $\~{a}dani$, come ye; $\~{i}lani$, go ye. Zauani, let us eat, is a future.

The negative imperative is formed by prefixing tha or by suffixing tha, plural $th\bar{o}$; thus, $tha\ l\bar{o}$, do not do; $dau\ tha$, fall not; $d\bar{a}peni\ th\bar{o}$, fall not ye. Note contracted forms such as $th\bar{a}d\bar{o}h$, do not come; $th\bar{e}lani$, do not ye go.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun; thus, $dr\tilde{o}$ $r\tilde{e}$, running gave, he ran; $k\tilde{e}$ $z\tilde{e}$ tadan, thee-by eating is-by-thee, thou hast to eat.

A common verbal noun is formed by adding \bar{a} , $p\bar{a}$, $b\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$, $z\bar{a}$, $r\bar{a}$, etc. Thus, $yu\bar{a}-d\bar{e}$, going-was, he went; $tengg\bar{a}-de-g$, striking-was-by-me, I struck; tha $d\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ $lha\bar{o}$, not falling make, do not make a habit of falling; $k\bar{e}$ $m\bar{e}$ $t\bar{e}-m\bar{a}$ $tha-l\bar{o}$, thee-by man striking not-make, do not habitually strike anybody; do-z $t\bar{e}-z\bar{a}$ $lh\bar{a}-der$, them-by striking made-they, they usually struck.

The same suffix is apparently used to form relative participles and nouns of agency; thus, $kam-lh\bar{a}-z\bar{a}$, work doer, servant; $khos\bar{a}$, found.

If the final \bar{a} is replaced by $\bar{\imath}$ the meaning is apparently that of an infinite of purpose; thus, $g\bar{\imath}$ $i-b\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{o}-ig$, by-me to-go was-I, I had to go; $kuri-m\bar{\imath}$, to say; $ru\bar{a}-\underline{t}s\bar{\imath}$, in order to feed, etc.

Conjunctive participles end in $\underline{ts}\bar{a}$, \bar{e} , $j\bar{i}$, $j\bar{e}$, $r\bar{i}$, zi, j, zh, and so on; thus, $a\underline{ts}\bar{a}$, arising; $ph\bar{a}\bar{e}$ $rau\bar{q}\bar{i}$, dividing give; $phug\bar{e}$ $ket\bar{o}$, wasting left; $anj\bar{i}$, having come; $d\bar{a}j\bar{e}$, falling; $t\bar{a}r\bar{i}$, seeing; $t\bar{e}zi$ $t\bar{o}\bar{i}$, he is sitting; hunj, taking out; kezh, leaving, and so on. Compare the suffixes of the case of the agent and of the terminative.

Negative verb.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma $ram\bar{a}$ -der, they did not give; ma da-g, I shall not fall. Ma sometimes coalesces with a following vowel; thus, $m\bar{e}h$ -g, I shall not go. It is sometimes also suffixed; thus, $thu\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}$ ma, did not neglect. The past negative tenses of $\bar{a}b\bar{\imath}$, to come; $\bar{\imath}b\bar{\imath}$, to go, are formed as follows:—

	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.
1	$ar{m{a}}gg\acute{e}mu$	ā nni í m u	₹gyiémn	īnniému
2	ānnému	ลิททiému	īnnému	īnniému
3	ānnému	ānniému	ilómn	īlurému

The negative is, in such forms, a suffix.

For further details the student is referred to the version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son which follows, and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 533 and ff.

[No. 42.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAMBA LĀHUĻĪ.

(STATE CHAMBA.)

(Rev. T. Grahame Bailey, 1905.)

bārang 'ē mīũ jur yō tōī. Cheje yōī kūī, bā, anyō Small son-by father-to said, 'O father, whatOne man-of two sons were. Dōī ēnō māl phāē randō. gē-bī pīpā gē-bī raŭ.' property me-to comes me-to give.' Him-by own property dividing gave. That-from yūe chij thalē thōra dīnē cheje yōī jamā lhātē, ōhētār mulkha-rī īdē. after few days small son-by all things together made, far country-in went. dōi madam kam lhātō, ēnō phugē ketō. māl Du bēlā-rī batē work did, own property wasting left. That time-in all There him-by bad anggā shute (or, ide). Doiā du $d\bar{o}$ dēshā-rī binā shujidē kharch spent becoming-went that country-in great famine became (went). Then he shujidē. Dorā ī sāhūkārē dōrē īdē. l)õi dō dēshā-rī straitened became. Then that country-in one rich-man near went. Him-by own sữraz Dō mansa tōi, 'du shang rhī-rī sữrar ruā<u>ts</u>ī <u>ts</u>âtte. field-in swine to-graze sent. His mind was, 'that husk-food swine-by eating-were chhalla ramåder. dōbī ma pīmādeg.' Azla khog ēnō own stomach I-might-fill.' By-anyone him-to anything gave-they. kamlhāzā-dī ʻ giū bāō anyō tã kutē, dō-bī hōsha āndē, 'my father-of how-many work-doers-to much came, then said, him-to sense ōnyī sīuāda. Gē khāē atsā geỗ bāō roți tod; ge der I standing arising my father-of near will-go, also bread is; I here hungry die. $k\overline{a}$ gunāh lhēga. Ente dī " gī sargō-ē kög, do-bi gī by-me him-to will-say, "by-me heaven-of-and of-thee sin did-I. Now this worthy (kēnō) kam-lhāzā-du sāhī lhaō."' mad hyazā kā yō kūṛi-mī. Ge-bi $k\tilde{a}$ Me-to thy (thy-own) work-doers-of like make."; not-am again thy son to-say. Ente du ōhētār tōī, du tarī dō bāō $d\bar{o}\mathbf{r}$ īlī. Dora atsa eno far was, him seeing his father-to Then arising own father-of near went. Now he mast au $\tilde{r}\tilde{e}$. re. guāh dāh ādī; do dro-re; dõī mūthū pity came; he ran; him-by neck-to embrace made, much kiss made. Him-by ka gunāh lhēga. Ente dī jōge sargō-ē ʻgī dobi kūi, Now this worthy not-is again him-to said, 'by-me heaven-of-and of-thee sin did.nokarari kūi, 'ruthē ruthē kham kã yō kūri-mī.' Dōu bāē good clothes taking-out His father-by servants-to said, 'good thy son to-say.' VOL. III, PART I.

hadani, kez dō-bī kham rāhni : guī guthāb rāhni, konzarī paular by-you him-to clothes put-on; hand-to ring bring, put, feet-on shoesrāhni; mōrē renz shāreni; yez zauani khushī lhauani, du gappā lhājī put; great calf by-us shall-eat merry shall-make, that speech making kill; du giū yō sīē tōī, ente hyazā shring-rī; tūi hiõshtē, ente khosa that my son dead was, now again alive-went; formerly was-lost, now obtained ilī.' Dorã \mathbf{doz} khushī lhāter. Then by-them merry went.' made.

Do morē yo rhi-ri tōī. ghārī chūmh kachā Αũ рī (or, ādī) big son field-in was. What time housenearcame (arrived) gīdō $m\bar{i}$ chāl thate. Dorã ī chāgara-bī ād-kutē rhugādē, singing dancing-of also noise heard. Then one servant-to calledasked. 'chhī shujad?' dobī kūī, 'kā Dõi nuā aniad: ka bāē 'what becoming-is?' Him-by him-to said, 'thy younger-brother come-is; thy father-by tshōi renz shaiādō, dō thāle du rājī-bājī khosīrī.' Du röshē fat calf killed, of-that for-sake he safe was-obtained.' He angry became tongg mēliādē. Ъō $\mathbf{b}ar{\mathbf{a}}$ dāthī anjī du chhēndī. bā-bī Dōī ūiāb inside not-went. His father out coming him persuaded. Him-by father-to answer 'dho barsh ka tehl lhateg; gi ka hugam thuasi ma. made, 'so-many years thy service did-I; by-me thy order rejected not. By-thee lā gī-bī ma randēn (or, rāshī), "kēnō yārada sādē khushī gappā any-time one goat me-to not "thy-own friends with happy talk gavest, lhau." Abēlā $\mathbf{k}\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$ dī karū ādī, kã dōī māl madam kammārī What-time thy this son came, him-by thy property make." badworks-in kharāb lhājī, kã dō thāli renz shaīāden.' Dōī dōbī kūī, 'ē yō, waste making, by-thee him for killedest. calfHim-by him-to said, 'O son, ku hamēsh giū kachā todon; giū tod, dū kã shū. Khushi thou always of-me near art; mine is, thatthineMerry is.to-make. shūbī jữshī tōī. $\mathbf{K}\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}$ dī nuā sīē tōī, ente hyazā merry to-become proper was. Thy this younger-brother dead was, nowagain tūī hīðshtē, ente khosa ilī." alive-went; formerly lost-was, now obtained went.

RANGLŌĪ, GŌNDLĀ, OR TINAN.

The dialect spoken on the banks of the river Chandra is known under various names such as Rangloi, Gondla, and Tinan. At a distance of about fifteen miles from the confluence of the rivers Chandra and Bhaga it is superseded by the Tibetan dialect spoken in Spiti and neighbourhood.

Rangloī and Bunán, the dialect spoken on the river Bhaga, have usually been returned together under the head of Lāhulī, i.e. the language of Lahul. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 2,987. The corresponding figures at the last Census of 1901 were as follows:—

Kangra	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•		•	•	•	5,069
Mandi														196
Kashmir S	tate	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	264
											То	TAL	•	5,529

We are not, as yet, able to state how many out of this total should be assigned to the Rangloi dialect.

AUTHORITY-

Diack, A. H.,—The Kulu Dialect of Hindi; Some Notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the Songs and Sayings current amongst the people, and a Glossary. Lahore 1896. Contains a Rangloi vocabulary on pp. 102 and ff.

Our information about Rangloi is very unsatisfactory. No new materials have been forthcoming, and we therefore only possess the small vocabulary printed in Mr. Diack's Kulu grammar. It is impossible to come to a final decision regarding the position of the dialect. It seems, however, to occupy an intermediate position between Bunán and Manchāṭi, being probably more closely related to the latter than to the former.

So far as we can judge from the scanty materials available Ranglõi and Manchāṭī often closely agree in vocabulary. Compare bang-ṭa, Manchāṭī bang-ḍa, a bullock; yad, Manchāṭī yad, a cloth; gyag, Manchāṭī rag, a day; ram-pa, Manchāṭī ran, Kanāwarī ran, to give; Sang-lang, Manchāṭī Swāng-lang, but Bunán Garzha, Lahul; min, Manchāṭī min, name; sing, Manchāṭī sing, wood. The cases in which Ranglõi agrees with Bunán as against Manchāṭī do not seem to be numerous. Compare soti, Bunán soti, Manchāṭī ti, water.

Manchāṭī has apparently adopted a greater number of Aryan loan-words than Ranglōī. So far as our present information goes, however, the vocabularies of the two dialects are to all appearance closely connected.

A consideration of the few points connected with Rangloi grammar which have been made known point to a similar conclusion.

According to Mr. Diack's list the case suffixes of both dialects are identical, viz., genitive nu, dative ring (compare Kanāwarī, rang, near, to), ablative zi, locative ang.

Mr. Diack gives the following numerals, nyizhi, two; shrummu, three; ngar, five; sa, ten; sas-nyid-chi, seventeen. Manchāṭī differs in the numeral for two, which is vol. III, PART I.

jut. With regard to the rest we may compare shumu, three; ngai, five; sa, ten, and nyii, seven.

The personal pronouns apparently also agree. Compare gye, Manchāṭī gye, I; gyu-dong, to me, compare Manchāṭī gyeu, my; nye-nu, our, compare Manchāṭī ngye, we; ka, Manchāṭī ka, thou; ka-nu, Manchāṭī ka-nu, thy; kye-nu, your, compare Manchāṭī kye-na, you; do, Manchāṭī du, he, and so forth. Forms such as gye ing-gu, my own; gyu-dong, to me, show that the genitive suffix in Ranglōī in reality has the form u. Compare the remarks under the head of Manchāṭī, p. 450. I am indebted to the Rev. A. H. Francke for the list of pronouns in Tinan which follows:—

	Sing	ULAR.	I	UAL.	PLURAL.		
	Ordinary.	Respectful.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	
lst person	gye	·	nyish	eshag	ngyene	ngyenag	
2nd person	ka	kyenag	•••	kyentsag	•••	kyena	
3rd person	do, du	•••	doku	•••	dore	•••	

The respectful form kyenag, thou, is probably a plural.

Such indications as can be iderived from the scanty materials at our disposal therefore point to the conclusion that Ranglöi is a dialect very closely related to Manchāṭi.

BUNĀN.

Bunán is the dialect spoken on the banks of the river Bhaga, from its confluence with the Chandra and north-eastwards, for about 15 miles, till it meets with the Tibetan dialect spoken in Spiti and the neighbourhood. Towards the south and west it is bounded by Pahāṛī, and the influence of that language is strongly felt in the lower part of the Bunán territory. The dialect is apparently gradually giving way to Tibetan, and a man of the lower Bhaga will speak to one of the lower Chandra in Tibetan, and not in Bunán.

On the lower Bhaga the dialect is also known under the name of Gāhrī.

We have no separate information about the number of speakers. Bunán has usually been returned together with Göndlā or Tinan, the dialect spoken on the Chandra under the name of Lāhuļā. The revised estimates for that latter form of speech as made for this Survey were 2,987; but these are far too low, as in the last Census of 1901 the corresponding returns were as follows:—

Kangra	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5, 069
\mathbf{Mandi}	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	196
Kashmir	State	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•		•	264
											TOTAL		•	$5,\!529$

Bunán is not a language possessing a literature. The Gospel of St. Mark has been translated into the dialect by the Rev. A. H. Francke. In former days, when the Rājas of Kulu ruled in Lahul, the dialect was written in the Tākarī character, but now the Tibetan alphabet, which is much better suited for the purpose, is used instead.

AUTHORITIES-

JAESCHKE, H. A.,—Note on the Pronunciation of the Tibetan Language. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxxiv, Part i, 1865, pp. 91 and ff. Contains a Bunán vocabulary.

DIACK, A. H., —The Kulu Dialect of Hindi. Some Notes on its grammatical structure, with specimens of the Songs and Sayings current amongst the people, and a Glossary. Lahore 1896. Contains a Gara, i.e. Bunán vocabulary, on pp. 102 and ff.

Ladakhi Sonys edited in co-operation with Rev. S. Ribbach and Dr. E. Shawe by A. H. Francke. Leh 1899-1902. The songs numbered 44-48 are in Bunán.

Bunán is a dialect of the same kind as Kanāw^arī, Lāhuļī, and the Almora dialects. A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Bunán has been kindly prepared by the Rev. A. W. Heyde, and a list of Standard Words and Phrases has been forwarded from the district. Both have been carefully revised by the Rev. A. H. Francke, and the remarks which follow are mainly based on his notes.

Pronunciation.—The representation of the various sounds in the specimen is very accurate. The materials available are not, however, sufficient for describing the phonetical system in detail. I shall, therefore, only make some few remarks.

Concurrent vowels are usually not contracted. Thus, nuï, new; noï, much; nor-taï, wealth-having, rich; chheï, warm. Sometimes, however, we find that they are combined into one sound; thus, awa-i and awe, of the father; men, i.e. ma-in, is not, no.

Bunán does not appear to possess aspirated soft consonants. In addition to the palatals ch, chh and j, we also find the palatal affricatæ \underline{ts} , $\underline{ts}h$, and \underline{dz} . Thus, $\underline{ts}emed$, a girl; bu- $\underline{ts}ha$, a son; $\underline{dz}awo$, a friend.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus, butsha-rog, to the son; gyab-dog, on the back; legs-tog, in the village. In many cases a hard consonant corresponds to a soft consonant in Tibetan; thus, pya, Tibetan bya; tsum, Tibetan 'adzin; prag, Tibetan, brag, etc.

Double consonants are sometimes simplified. Thus, gyab, Tibetan rgyab, back; kar-ma, Tibetan skar-ma, star; nying-jed, Tibetan snying-brje, pity; $z\tilde{a}-i$, Tibetan bzang-ba, good, and so forth.

In other cases double consonants are preserved; thus, pro, anger; stonmo, feast; kyidpo, happy; smad, harlot; grog-po, brook; tradpa, shoe; shrangs, horse; chaks, iron. Occasionally we find a vowel inserted between the concurrent consonants; thus, t^urui or trui, Tibetan drug, six.

It will be seen that Tibetan words are differently treated. Some of them preserve the pronunciation of classical Tibetan; thus, kres, hunger; khral, tax; phyugpo, rich. Others agree with modern Tibetan; thus, tam, classical kram, cabbage; chodpa, classical spyodpa, behaviour. We must conclude that there are two layers of such words, some old and others modern.

The genitive suffix gyi occurs as gyi, gi, kyi, i; thus han-gyi, thy; phag-gi, of the pigs; shrangs-kyi, of the horse; awa-i of the father. Note also ta-i, his, from tal, he. Gy apparently also interchanges with ky, ch, zh, and so forth, in several verbal forms.

We have no information regarding tones and accents in the dialect. A final consonant is sometimes only half pronounced; thus, ekhye-k', we go.

Article.—The numeral tiki, tii, ti, one, is used as an indefinite article. Thus, mugē tezi tiki, famine great a; <u>tsemed tii</u>, a daughter; mi tiki-rog, or, shorter mi ti-kog, to a man.

Nouns.—With regard to the formation of nouns we may note the use of the prefix a in nouns denoting relationship. Thus, a-wa, father; a-ma, mother; a-chho, brother; a-gu, uncle, etc. All these words are, however, perhaps Tibetan loan-words.

A suffix $\underline{ts}i$ is apparently used in words such as $lang-\underline{ts}i$, bull; $nyi-\underline{ts}i$, sun.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is distinguished by using different words or by adding affixes. Thus, mi, man; las-mi, woman: shrangs, horse; god-ma, mare; $lang-\underline{ts}i$, bull; hambu, cow: khyu, dog; mo khyu, bitch: sha-wa, male deer; sha-mo, female deer.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not distinguished when it appears from the context. According to the list of words the usual plural suffix is zhi; thus, awa-zhi, fathers; mi zã-i-zhi, good men; hambu-zhi, cows. A plural is also formed by adding tshã-i, all; tsore, all, etc. Thus, shrangs tshã-i, horse all, horses; tsemed tsore, daughters; tal-tso-re, they. The final re in tsore is perhaps a plural suffix. Tsore-rog can be shortened to tso-rog; thus, yog-po-tso-rog, to the servants; dzawo-tso-rog, to the friends.

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Case.—The base alone is used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs and the object. The object is, however, sometimes followed by the postposition of the dative. Thus, yonday tikog zhu-zhi, having requested a farmer (lit. to a farmer).

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent. The usual suffix of that case is dzi, $\underline{t}\underline{s}i$, and, after vowels, zi; thus, $ph\bar{e}\underline{t}\underline{s}\bar{e}-\underline{t}\underline{s}ug-\underline{t}\underline{s}i$, by the younger son; awa-zi, by the father. In the plural $\underline{t}\underline{s}hi$ is used; thus, $awa-\underline{t}\underline{s}hi$, by fathers; $\underline{t}\underline{s}e-med-\underline{t}\underline{s}hi$, by daughters.

The pure instrumental is apparently formed as in Tibetan by adding the suffix dang; thus, ra-shi-dang, with ropes.

The dative, locative, and terminative have all been confounded into one case, which is occasionally also used to denote the object of transitive verbs. The suffix of this case is identical with the suffix of the terminative in Tibetan. It has various forms such as rog, dog, tog, kog, and zhog. Rog is only used after vowels. Thus, butsha-rog, to the son; awa-rog, to the father; yog-po-tso-rog, to the servants. After the final i of adjectives, however, dog is used instead; thus, tshāi-dog-chi, all-in-from, from among all.

Dog and tog are apparently used promiscuously after consonants. Tog, however, is generally added after s, r, and after mute consonants, while dog is the regular form of the suffix after l, m, n, and ng. Thus legs-tog, in a country; yar-tog, on the back of; rig-tog-chi, from on the field; tal-dog, to him; kyum-dog, in the house; han-dog, to thee; bang-dog, on the feet. There are, nevertheless, several exceptions to this latter rule.

Kog only occurs in connexion with the indefinite article, and the initial k originally belongs to the numeral tiki, one. Thus, mi ti-kog, to a man. The fuller form tiki-rog is also used.

Zhog is only used in the plural, and probably contains the plural suffix zhi. Thus, awa-zhog, to fathers; tha-zu-zhog, to them.

In roang-gi tib-<u>ts</u>og, on the top of the hill, we apparently have a suffix og used in the same way. The full form is, however, tibtsi-rog.

The suffix of the ablative is chi. Thus, nying-jed-chi, from compassion; khres-<u>tsi</u>, through hunger. Chi is often added to other postpositions. Thus, rig-tog-chi, from in the field; <u>tsemed ti-kog-chi</u>, from with a daughter; awa tiki nung-chi, from with a father, and so forth.

The suffix of the genitive occurs as gyi, gi, kyi, and i. The form gyi is only used after n and l; thus, za-men-gyi, of food; han-gyi, thy. Gi is the common form after soft consonants. Thus, phag-gi, of the swine; roang-gi, of the hill. Kyi occurs after s in legs-kyi, of the village; shrangs-kyi, of the horse.

After vowels the suffix is simply i. Thus, buta-i, of the tree; agu-i, of the uncle; butsha-i, of the son; gyii agu-i bu-tshag tal-gyi shring bag-mag ri-shi-ni, my uncle's son his sister wife brought-has, the son of my uncle is married to his sister.

The suffix i also occurs in ta-i, his, which is used in addition to talgyi.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are dang, with; de, to; kachang, near; mang, in, to; nang, together with, added to the base; bon-threg, for the sake of; duchi-mang, in the presence of, kho-chi, behind; nung, to, at the place of; nung-chi, from, and so forth, added to the genitive.

In legs wai tikung, to a far country, the postposition is perhaps ung; compare tha-zu-ng, or thazui-nung, there; thong, within; nung, here.

Adjectives.—Most adjectives end in *i*; thus *chhe-i*, warm; *chho-i*, fat; *nor-ta-i*, wealth-having, rich; *tezi*, great; *tshãi*, all; *zãi* and *deï*, good; *marei*, bad; *noï*, much; waï, far, and so forth. It seems as if such forms were originally genitives. Other adjectives end in *po*; thus, *epo*, good; *mang-po*, many; *son-po*, alive; *phyug-po*, rich. They are perhaps borrowed from Tibetan. The same is the case with forms such as *ches-pa*, dear; *gyogs-pa*, quick; *khas-pa*, wise, etc.

No termination is added in forms such as *nyeme*, nice, well-tasting; *tunig*, short; yas, right; wus, moist, and so forth. Note the reduplication in forms such as gad-gad, rough; sil-sil, smooth.

Adjectives usually follow, but sometimes also precede, the word they qualify. Thus, *lutsi chhoï tiki*, calf fat a ; *len-mi noï*, workmen many; *shii shrangs-kyi*, the white horse's.

The particle of comparison is basta; compare Manchāṭī bē. Thus, tha-zu basta zãi, him than good; tal-gyi a-chho taï a-che basta kyui ni, his brother his sister from tall is. Compare also phos <u>ts</u>hãi-dog-chi zãi, clothes all-in-from good, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. Note the final *i* in most numerals. The Bunán forms most closely correspond to those in use in the Almora dialects. Higher numerals are counted in twenties as in Kanāwarī. Thus, nyis-sai chui, two twenties ten, fifty. In butsha nyis-kying, two sons; nyis-pi awa, two fathers, kying and pi look like generic particles.

	SINGULAR.		DUAL.		PLURAL.		
	Ordinary.	Respectful.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	Exclusive.	Inclusive.	
1st person	gyi		hing	erang	hing-ji, hing-zhi	erang-ji, erang-zhi	
2nd person	han	ini		han nyispi		han-zhi, (han-ji)	
3rd person	tal		tal nyispi	•••	tal-ji, tal-zhi	•••	

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

There are also emphatic forms such as inggi, I. Other forms are gyi-zi, by me; gyi-i, my; hing-tshi, by us; han-tshi. by you, tal-zi, by him, etc.

Gyi, I, corresponds to Manchāṭī gye and to jī in the Almora dialects. Hing-zhi, we, should be compared with Byāngsī ing; han, thou, with Chaudangsī, Byāngsī gan, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns are the, this; nu-zu and tha-zu, that. Note also demonstrative adverbs such as $h\bar{e}nag$, thus; noag, so; nung, there; khyag, here; da, now, and so forth.

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Interrogative pronouns are su, who? kha, what? gui, where? u-ka, when? ichig, how much, how many? and so forth. Indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives by adding $r\bar{e}$; thus, su-zi- $r\bar{e}$, by anyone; uka- $r\bar{e}$, ever; kha- $r\bar{e}$, any.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead. The suffix tsug is usually added in order to form such participles. It apparently adds definiteness. Thus te-zi-tsug butsha, the elder son; han-gyi butsha ma-gyun-shi-tsug han-gyi len-mi tiki nang tsog-se liku, thee-by son not-worthy-being thy workman one with like make, make me, who am not worthy to be your son, like one of your servants; phē-tsē-tsug-tsi, by the younger one, by him who was the younger one; phos tshāi-dog-chi zāi-tsug, clothes all-in-from the-good-one, the best cloth. The relative participle sometimes precedes the qualified word. Thus, gyi-rog khug-sha-gyun-shi-tsug nor-kal, me-to to-be-got-necessary-being property-share, the share of the property which I shall get.

The interrogative pronouns are sometimes used as relatives. Thus, nor kha-tai-<u>ts</u>ug <u>ts</u>hãi, all the property he had; kha-dang-kha gyi-rog ni-i-<u>ts</u>ug, whatever is mine.

Verbs.—The conjugation of verbs is of the same kind as in Kanāw^arī. The various persons are, to some extent, distinguished by means of pronominal suffixes. In the first person singular gya, or, after vowels, g, is added. Thus, yen-gya, am; khyed-che-g, strike. The latter form consists of a base khyed-cha, the final a having been changed to e under the influence of the suffix g. This g is of course an abbreviated form of gyi, I, and the change of a to e is due to the yi which follows the g in the full form. In lig-ki-za, I did, an infix, ki, which is identical with gyi, is used instead. In a similar way an infix kyu or ku denotes an object of the first person singular in forms such as gyi-rog khyed-kyu-za, me-to struck-me, I was beaten; lig-ku-ni, make for me.

A subject of the second person singular is usually indicated by adding a suffix na; thus, yen-na, art. An infix n is used instead in ni-n-za, wast.

A subject of the third person is not usually indicated by means of any suffix. Sometimes, however, re is added, and this suffix is used in all numbers; thus, lig-cha-re, does; lig-chhag-re, they do.

The plural forms are also used in the dual. The marking of the subject by means of suffixes is not so common as in the singular. A suffix ni is often used in the first and second persons; thus, yen-ni, we are, you are. In many cases the tense suffixes are modified in the dual and plural in such a way that the initial consonant is aspirated and, if it is soft, hardened. Compare lig-za, he did; $lig-\underline{ts}ha$, they did; khyed-kya-ta, he will beat; khyed-kya-thad, they will beat; egye-g, I go; ekhye-k', we go. Consonants such as d and g are sometimes added; thus, khyed-kya-tha-d, they will beat; khyed-chha-g-ni, you beat, and so on. I have not, however, been able to detect any rule for their use.

The personal suffixes are often dropped altogether; thus, elen, I went; ni-za, I was.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are yen and ni; thus, yen-gya, am; ni-za, was. Other bases are kya and go; thus, kya-men, to be; kya-zhi, having been; goai-tsha, we were; goán-tsha, they were.

Finite verb.—On account of the frequent use of pronominal suffixes the conjugation of an ordinary verb makes a rather complex impression.

Present time.—Several suffixes are used to form a present. A common one is cha, vol. III, PART I.

plural chha. Compare the table which follows and which registers the usual forms of the present tense of the verb lig-chum, to make:—

	Singular.	Dual.	Plural.	
1st person exclusive	. gyi-zi lig-che-g	hing- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhe-g	hing-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi liy-chheg	
1st person inclusive		erang- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chheg	erang-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-ch h eg	
2nd person	. han-zi lig-cha-na	han- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag-ni	han-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag-ni	
3rd person	. tal-zi lig-cha-re	tal-tshi lig-chhag (-re)	tal-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi lig-chhag (-re)	

Cha is probably the suffix of a participle or verbal noun. The same is the case with ya in egye-g, 1 go; e-ya-na, goest; kya in khyed-kya ni-za, beating was, and so on. Compound forms are zhod-chi ni, having-sat is, he lives, and so on.

In forms such as yen, is, are; yen-gya, am, the base alone is used as a present.

Past time.—The most common suffix of the ordinary past is za, dual and plural \underline{tsha} ; thus, lig-ki-za, I did; lig-za-na, didst; lig-za, did; dual and plural 1. $lii-\underline{tsha}$; 2. lig-tsha-ni; 3. $lig-\underline{ts}ha$.

A perfect is formed by adding men; thus, khyed-men-gya, I struck, I have struck; lig-men-na, hast done; lig-men, has done, have done. Such forms correspond to the Tibetan perfect ending in pa-yin. Another perfect is formed by adding ta, plural tad; thus, lig-ta-na, hast done; lig-tad-ni, you had done. This perfect is only used in the second and third persons. It corresponds to the Ladakhī perfect in tog.

A suffix len occurs in e-len, went; eleni, wentest; gal-len-gyu, I transgressed, and so forth.

Note finally the suffix ag in zug-chho-ag, they began, and forms such as goai- $\underline{ts}ha$, we were; goan- $\underline{ts}ha$, you, they, were.

Future.—The suffix of the future is kya-ta or ka-ta, i.e. ta added to a participle ending in kya or ka; thus, khyed-kya-ta, I shall strike; lig-ka-ta-na, thou wilt do. Ta becomes tha in the plural; thus, lig-ka-thev, we shall do; lig-ka-thad-ni, you will do; lig-ka-thad, they will do.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, za, eat; ra, come. In the plural ni is added; thus, lig-ni, make ye. An imperative suffix ra occurs in forms such as zho-ra, sit; khye-ra, beat; pho-ra, put on. An indirect or direct object of the first person is often indicated by adding ku, after vowels u, and a suffix a in the same way often refers the action to an object of the second or third persons; thus, lig-ku, make me, make for me; lig-ku-ni, make ye me; da-u, give me; li-a, make him; da-a, give him. The suffix a is also used in neuter verbs; thus, ela, go; grela, run.

The particle of prohibition is tha; thus, tha li-a, make not; tha grel-a, run not.

Verbal nouns and participles.—The Bunán verb, like that of other Tibeto-Burman languages, is properly a verbal noun. The base itself is freely used as a noun and case suffixes are added. It is a consequence of the nominal character of the verb that it is difficult to distinguish between what we might call participles and verbal nouns.

The suffix ji, which is often pronounced zhi, is very commonly used to form a conjunctive participle. Compare zhu-ji, asking; el-ji, having gone; shi-cha khom-ji, to

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die finished-having, having died, etc. If there is more than one subject ji is changed to chhi; thus, thad-chhi, making merry. In neuter verbs ji is usually replaced by chi or shi, plural chhi; thus, howang-shi, having taken place; shan-shi, having arisen; tab-shi, returning, etc.

The postposition de is used to form a kind of infinitive of purpose; thus, el-de ma phod-za, go not could, he could not go; bing-de gyun-ted-chi, to-fill necessary-thinking, wishing to fill; sem thad-de da-za, mind to-be-merry giving, making merry.

The postposition $r\bar{e}$ is added to bases ending in a vowel. Thus, $za-r\bar{e}$ khom-ji eating having-finished, having devoured.

The postposition nang. with, forms a kind of conditional mood. Thus, ring-nang, saying-with, if you say.

A common suffix which is used to form verbal nouns and participles occurs in various forms such as kya, ka, kha, cha, sha. It is probable that we have here to do with more than one suffix. We may perhaps compare the base kya, to become, and Purik chas.

Such forms are properly verbal nouns. We must, however, sometimes translate them as verbal nouns, and sometimes as participles. Thus, gyi-rog khyed-kya ni-za, me-to beating was, I was beaten; ma gor-ka, no-tarrying, without tarrying; roag-ka-re, grazing-is, he is grazing; hin-zhi e-kha goaik', our going is, we go; chol-cha, to appoint; shi-cha khom-ji, dying finished-having, having died; han-zi khyed-cha-re, thee-by striking-is, thou strikest; khug-sha gyun-shi-tsug, getting necessary-being, which should be got.

A very common verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix chum, i.e. cha and a suffix m which is identical with the m-suffix of the Almora dialects. Thus, ka-chum to turn; kre-chum, to bite; tig-chum, to cover; khug-chum-bon-threg, finding-on-account-of, because he has been found.

Forms such as *tib-men*, struck, contain the same suffix m and probably the verb substantive. *Men* is a very common suffix of verbal nouns. Thus, za-men, food; dod-men, to meet; gyags-men, to listen; toa-men, to cut grass; phya-men, to speak and so forth.

A common verbal noun, which apparently has the meaning of a past, is formed by adding a suffix s. It is sometimes added to the base, and sometimes also to the suffixes mentioned in the foregoing. Thus, ra-s-tang, having-come-on; do-s-tang, being-found on; lo-chi-s-tang, on having said.

<u>Tsoas</u> in <u>tsoas-thir-za</u>, divided-given-was, perhaps contains the same suffix. Compare, however, astog, time; khyed-kya-astog, when beating; leb-cha-astog, when arriving.

A present participle active is formed by adding chi-pa, plural chi-pa-ji, and a past participle passive by adding shi- $\underline{ts}ug$, plural shi- $\underline{ts}ug$ -shi; thus, lig-chi-pa, doing; lig-shi- $\underline{ts}ug$, done.

Passive voice. There is no passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me.'

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma and before imperatives, tha. Thus, ma da-za, he did not give; tha da, give not.

Order of words.—The order of words is subject, object, verb. Adjectives and numerals usually follow, and genitives precede the noun they qualify.

For further details the student is referred to the specimen which follows and to the list of Standard Words and Phrases on pp. 533 and ff.

VOL. III, PART I.

[No. 43.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

BUNĀN.

(DISTRICT LAHUL.)

(Rev. A. W. Heyde, 1899.)

ti-kog bu-tsha nyis-kying tan-ji, phētsētsugtsi awa-rog, ʻgyi-i Man one-to 80n two being, the-younger-by father-to. 'mykhug-sha-gyun-shi-tsug nor-kal awa, gyi-rog gyi-rog da-u,' noag to-be-found-proper-being property-share father, me-to me-togive, 80 tshoas-thir-za. lod-ii, a-wa-zi nor Nung-chi noi ma gor-ka having-said, father-by property divided-gave. Then much not tarrying nor tshãi phē-tsē-tsug-ts: du-ji legs wa-i ti-kung el-za. allgathering the-younger-hy property country far one-to went. thir-tad. chhud-zos-tog Nor Tshãi kha-ta-yi-tsug tshãi za-rē water-into Allgave. Property whatever allto-eat tha-zu legs-tog mu-gē tezi tiki ra-ji khre-za. khom-ji Yon-dag country-in that famine great one coming hungered. finishing Farmer phag tha-zu-zi zhu-ji, roag-tsi ehol-ja tikog rig-tog thir-za. him-by swine requesting, herdsman appointing one-to field-into sent. dan bing-de gyun phag-gi za-men kha nii-tsug-dang in-zii ted-chi There swine-of food what being-with himself-of belly to-fill thinking su-zi-re ma da-za. Nung-chi tal dran-pa so-ji hēnag mi-za, 'gyi-i awa-rog he memory refreshing thus thought, 'my Then anyone not gave. father-to Tha-zu-zhog za-men-gyi long-ehod mok'i-ni, goag. len-mi no-i gyiare. Them-to many food-of work-men plenty much-is, I-on-thekhres-tsi khyag shi-cheg. shan-shi ning Da awa-i du-chi-mang hunger-by other-hand here die. arising father-of presence-in " gyi-i awa. nam-nang el-ji, han-gyi du-chi-mang dig-pa "my father, heaven-and having-gone, your presence-in sinhan-gyi bu-tsha lig-ji ma-gyun-shi-tsug han-gyi len-mi tiki you-by 80 n having-done not-worthy-being thy work-man one nang tsog-se liku," noag zhus-ka-ta,' mi-ji, shan-shi awa-i du-chithinking, arising father-of make," thus like will-request,' with Awa-zi el-za. wa-i-chi mang ra-i thang-ji nying-jed-chi seen-having compassion-feeling Father-by also far-from went. coming ence-in grel-chi ka-chang khoang-gul-tog bu-tsha khril-shi tal-dog a-11 da-za. near running neck-on 80n clasping him-to kissgave.

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Nung-chi bu-tsha-zi tal-dog, 'gyi-i awa, han-gyi du-chigyi-zi nam-nang him-to, 'my father, me-by Then son-by heaven-and thy presence-Tan-chi khoreg han-gyi ma-gyun-shi,' dig-pa lig-ki-za. bu-tsha mang have-done. To-day-from after your not-worthy-am, in 80n 'da tshãi-dog-chi Awa-zi yog-po-tso-rog, phos zhu-za. noag cloth Father-by servants-to, 'now all-in-from thus requested. rid-chhi tal-dog pho-ra; lag-tog khyag la-sab, bang-dog zãi-tsug brought-having him-on hand-on feet-on here put; ring, good-one tsua. Nung-chi lu-tsi chho-i ti-ki pur-ji za-ni, sem rē trad-pa Then calf fat also put. one killing eat, mind shoes jod-ni. bon-threg ring-nang, thad-chhi Tha-zu kha-i gyi-i the bu-tsha sit. That what-of forsaid-if, my this being-merry 80n son-po kya-za; hyod-ji, tab-shi khug-chum-bon-threg,' shi-cha khom-ji, finished-having, alive became; lost, again found-being-on-account-of, dyingtal-tso-re thad-chhi lig-cha lo-chis-tang ston-mo zug-chhoag. noag they-all merrily feast saying-on making began. thus

Nu-zu as-tog te-zi-tsug bu-tsha rig-tog-chi tab-shi kyum kachang Thattime-at elder-the 80n field-in-from returning house near leb-cha-astog rol-mo khori-pa-i kad nang yen-chis-tang yog-po tikog dancing-of arriving-when musicand sound. hearing-in servant one-to akstag-ji, 'the kha yen?' shra-za. Yog-po-zi, 'han-gvi bed is? calling, 'this what asked.Servant-by, younger-brother awa-zi tha-zu bu-tsha kham de-i-dog tab-shi do-s-tang ra-s-tang father-by that 80n coming-on health good-in backfinding-on chho-i ti-ki pur-za, lo-chi lu-tsi noag yen-ji tsag-shi thong pro killed, calffat one thus saying hearing angerentering inside Awa phod-za. phi-lag el-de ma ra-ji tshig jam-mi-rog, 'thong-mang ra,' Father outsidecould. going coming words mild-with, 'within come, lod-za. Bu-tsha-zi. 'awa. lo theleg ti-ki noag as-tog gyi-zi Son-by, said. 'father, year so-many time-in 80 me-by li-ki-ji han-gyi ag-tog-chi han-gyi yog-po u-ka-re ma gal-len-gya, servant making your mouth-in-from notever transgressed, your dza-wo-<u>ts</u>o-re-dang thad-chi skyid-po gyi-i lig-chum-bon-threg la-la-tsi han-zi friends-with my merry happy making-sake-for kidthee-by dan-za-na, noag lod-za. ' Da $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ han-gyi phētsē tiki rē bu-tsha ' Now gavest,thus said. younger notthy even sononetha-zu smad-tshong-ma-tso-re nang nor chhud-zos-tog thir-ji tabharlots with thatproperty water-into having-thrown havingtal-dog lu-tsi chho-i dan-za-na,' lod-za. Nung-chi noag awa-zi shi calf fat Then father-by returned him-to gavest,said. 80

lod-za, 'gyi-i bu-tsha, han ukarē gyi nang nyam-po zho-s-dang, kha-dang-kha said, ' my thou always me with together living-in, whatererDa han-gyi gyi-rog ni-i-tsug, tha-zu han-dog rē ni. shi-cha bed younger-brother me-to being, thee-to also is. Now thy dyingthatson-za; hyod-cha khug-shi-tsug-tog thad-chi khom-ji, khom-ji, having-finished, lived; lost-being having-finished, found-being-in merry skyid-po lig-cha gyun,' neag lod-za. happy making proper,' thussaid.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYĀ KHUN.

Rangkas or Saukiyā is stated to be a denomination of the people who carry on trade with Tibet. Their *khun* or dialect has been reported to be spoken in one village of Malla Johar, and four villages of Malla Danpur. The number of speakers has been estimated for the purposes of this Survey at 614.

Malla Johar, i.e., Upper Johar, is the north-western corner of Almora. It is bounded on the north and west by Garhwal and on the east by Tibet and Parganah Darma. Malla Danpur is situated to the west and south-west of Johar. The home of the Rangkas dialect is accordingly to the west of Dārmiyā.

I cannot find any corroboration of the statement that the Rangkas or Saukiyā are the people who carry on trade with Tibet, and I am not sure that it is correct. The Bhōṭiās of the neighbouring districts all carry on trade with that country. The Bhōṭiās of Johar, however, have the privilege of choosing their own markets, while the rest are confined to some particular mart in Tibet. Now Rakas is the name of one of the villages of Johar, and the Bhōṭiās of that district are known as Sokpas. Those names have perhaps something to do with the denomination of the dialect. At all events, we can safely assume that Rangkas is the form of speech used by Bhōṭiās all over Upper Johar and Upper Danpur.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been forwarded from the district. Babu Gobind Prasad, B.A., who has despatched them, expresses grave doubts about their correctness. He has not, therefore, ventured to accompany them by a translation. It is, however, possible to derive a general idea of the nature of the dialect from them, and I have therefore added an interlinear translation, though the meaning is not quite certain in all places. In the materials I have corrected all obvious mistakes such as, e.g., khami khā instead of khamir bā. On the whole, however, I have left them as I have received them.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is broadly the same as in the neighbouring dialects of Almora. The spelling of the specimens is, however, extremely inconsistent. Thus, s and \acute{s} , \bar{e} and $y\bar{a}$, and so forth are used promiscuously.

Long and short vowels are often interchanged; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ and ji, I. Similarly, the various vowels are often interchanged. Compare ji, $j\bar{e}$, $jai-g\bar{o}$, my; li-s, $l\bar{e}$ -s, and lai-s, said; $m\bar{\imath}$ -s and mai-s, by a man; $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$, $s\bar{e}$, and s, the suffix of the case of the agent; $hv\bar{a}sas$ and ka- $h\bar{o}sas$, was lost; $r\bar{o}$, $r\bar{\imath}$, ri, and r, the suffix of the terminative; $ny\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{e}$, the suffix of a conjunctive participle, and so forth. It is impossible to decide in each case whether such uncertainty in the writing corresponds to a similar uncertainty in the pronunciation.

The meaning of the sign which I have transliterated by the Anunasika is not certain. In words such as $rh\tilde{a}$, horse; $chub\tilde{a}$, to, and others, it is perhaps written instead of ng. In other cases it seems to denote a nasal pronunciation of the vowel; thus, $h\tilde{u}t$, camel; $si\text{-}ch\tilde{a}n$, dying.

Hard and soft consonants are apparently very freely interchanged; thus, g and k, the suffix of the genitive; $r\bar{a}$ -ch and $r\bar{a}$ -j, came; dhuk and tuk, all; bhung- $ny\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{u}n$, tall.

R is interchanged with r; thus, gulpair and gulpair, ever; dagar and dagar, with. S sometimes interchanges with ch; thus in the suffix of past time.

Note also the frequent aspiration in words such as mha, not; $hv\bar{a}nam$, far; $hv\bar{e}$, that; $rh\bar{a}$, bring; $rh\bar{u}$, ask; $rh\tilde{a}$, horse, and so forth.

We have no information regarding accentuation or tones.

Article.— $T\bar{a}$, a shorter form of the numeral $t\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, one, and indefinite pronouns such as $kham\bar{i}$, khami- $r\bar{i}$, and khami-r, some; gub, some, and $g\bar{a}r$, some, are used as indefinite articles; thus, $t\bar{a}$ naukar, a servant; $kham\bar{i}$ $b\bar{a}$, a father; khamir $m\bar{i}$, a man; gub $rh\tilde{a}$, a horse; $g\bar{a}r$ $s\tilde{a}$ -khu, in a village.

Nouns.—There are no instances in the materials available of any suffixes or prefixes used in order to distinguish gender. Different words are used for that purpose. Thus, $l\tilde{a}$, bull; $b\tilde{e}n$, cow: khvi, dog; $chhv\tilde{a}r$, bitch. Forms such as $rh\tilde{a}$ bachhai, mare, lit. horse-woman, show that Rangkas in this respect agrees with other neighbouring forms of speech.

Number.—The plural is not distinguished by means of any suffix when it can be inferred from the context. When required, a suffix chan, $ch\tilde{a}$ or $ch\bar{a}$ appears to denote the plural; thus, $b\bar{e}$ -chan, the bides; khvi- $ch\tilde{a}$, dogs; $b\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -k, of the skins. Compare Dārmiyā. In $khamiri\ ni$ - $ch\tilde{a}$ -k (i.e., $m\bar{i}$ - $ch\tilde{a}$ -k) $ni\acute{s}i$ $s\bar{e}ri$, one man-of two sons, the same suffix has apparently been used in order to form an honorific singular. A kind of plural can also be effected by adding words such as titi, mhan, many, and so forth; thus, $b\bar{a}$ titi, fathers; $mhan\ b\bar{a}$, fathers.

Case.—The various cases are apparently often interchanged. Thus both the genitive and the dative are used as accusatives, the genitive also occurs with the function of a dative, and so forth. The regular case system is apparently as follows.

The nominative and the accusative, i.e., the cases of the subject of intransitive verbs and of the object, are not distinguished by means of any suffix, although the genitive and the dative sometimes occur in the function of the object. Thus, $jal-g\bar{o}$ $chh\bar{e}$ -tas, his share (-of) he divided; n- $chab\tilde{a}$ u-g $l\bar{o}$ -r lai-s, him (-to) his bosom-to clasped.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$, $s\bar{\iota}$, or s; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}$ $l\bar{e}$ -s, father-by said, the father said; $ny\bar{a}pan$ -su $l\bar{\iota}$ -s, small-by said, the younger said.

The same form is also used as an instrumental; thus, chābuk-sō, with stripes.

Instead of s we occasionally find forms such as sich or syach. Thus, sud mi-sich $b\bar{e}$ $kh\bar{o}$ -s, simple man-by skin took; $kh\tilde{u}$ -mi-syach, by the thieves.

The usual suffix of the dative is $chab\tilde{a}$ or $chub\tilde{a}$, also written j- $b\tilde{a}ng$ and even j- $chub\tilde{a}$; thus, $b\tilde{a}$ - $chub\tilde{a}$, to the father; $b\tilde{a}$ -j- $chub\tilde{a}$, to the father; u-j- $b\tilde{a}ng$, to him. In u-g khamiri- $khar\bar{i}$ ma $d\bar{a}$ - $khar\bar{i}$ ma $d\bar{a}$ - $khar\bar{i}$ ma da- $khar\bar{i}$ his anyone-by anything not gave, no one gave him anything, the genitive has apparently been used instead of the dative, or else there is a dative suffix g, k.

An ablative is formed by adding the suffix pattī or batī. Thus, hvānam pattī, from a distance; khamī chami batī from a daughter.

The suffix of the genitive takes the forms $g\bar{o}$, gu, g, and k; thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{o}$, of the father; $m\bar{i}$ -g, of a man.

So far as we can judge from the specimens, the terminative is commonly used as a locative. It is formed by adding the suffix $r\bar{o}$, $r\bar{i}$, $r\bar{i}$, or r; thus, $la-r\bar{o}$, on the hand; $am-r\bar{i}$, and am-ar, on the way; $phu-r\bar{i}$, in the cave. Note $phu-\bar{a}r$, in the cave.

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Other locative suffixes are su, $s\bar{u}$, or similar forms, and $kh\tilde{u}$; thus, khung-su, at the bottom; $s\tilde{a}-kh\tilde{u}$, in the village.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $badl\bar{a}$, instead of; bhitar, inside; $g\bar{a}n$ - $\dot{s}yu$, before; gund- $patt\bar{t}$, between; hyang-su, behind; $hv\bar{e}$, from; $kh\tilde{u}$ -syu and $khv\tilde{a}$ - $sy\tilde{u}$, under; $l\bar{e}kh\bar{a}$ and $l\bar{e}kh$, for the sake of; $raksh\bar{a}$, with; $s\bar{a}man$, before; yart, yaran, on, and so forth. Postpositions are sometimes added to the base and sometimes to the genitive.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the qualified noun in the nominative. In $ny\bar{a}pan$ - $s\bar{o}$ $s\bar{e}r\bar{i}$ dhuk-chhan $d\bar{u}$ - $ny\bar{a}$, the small-by son all gathering, the younger son having gathered all, the case suffix has been added to the adjective $ny\bar{a}pan$ and not, as we would expect, to the noun.

The particle of comparison is $hv\bar{e}$; thus, u pi-khan u $rhang \acute{s}y\bar{a}$ $hv\bar{e}$ mhan mhan $\acute{s}ini$, his brother his sister from more tall is; dukh $hv\bar{e}$ $jhy\bar{a}n$, all from good, best. Compare Chamba Lāhuļī $v\bar{e}$.

Numerals.—The first numerals are found in the list of words. They precede the noun they qualify. $N\bar{\imath}ns\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{\imath}$, fifty, literally means 'two twenties ten.' Nanas, hundred, should perhaps be na-nsa, five twenties.

Pronouns.—The usual	forms of t	he personal	pronouns are as follows:—
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		,				
	I	We	Thou	You	He	They
Nom.	$ji,jar{e},jin$	n u ng	ga	gani	hvē, u	usī, hvē-chan
Agent	ji-s	nung-s	ga-sō, ga-sū, ga-s, gassai, gussu	gani-sō	u-sū, usī, u-s, hvēdasu	u sī-s, hvē- chan-s
Genit.	$ji ext{-}g, jai ext{-}gar{ ext{o}},\ jar{ ext{e}}, jyar{u}$	nung-g	$gar{o}$ - g , $gar{u}$ - g , $gar{o}$	gani-g	$u ext{-}g,\ ar{c} ext{-}g,\ ar{c},\ ar{h}v ilde{e}dar{c} ext{-}g$	usī-gō, hvē- chā-g

Besides, several other forms occur, such as $j\bar{e}$ -van, by me; $hv\bar{e}$ -yart-pattī, by him, lit. that-on-from, and so forth. Most of them are due to misunderstanding in the translation or to misreading of the original draft. Others are simply slightly different forms of those registered in the above table, and they will be easily understood when met with.

The Aryan loan-word apnō, apnō-gō, apnō-k, own, is used as a reflexive pronoun.

The pronoun u, \bar{o} , he, is sometimes used in order to repeat a preceding noun before postpositions or governing words. Thus, \bar{o} -g \bar{o} - $b\bar{a}$ -g $day\bar{a}$ $r\bar{a}$ -ch, his his-father-of pity came; $hv\bar{e}da$ - \acute{s} $gar\bar{\iota}b$ $m\bar{\iota}$ u- $chab\tilde{a}$ $rh\bar{u}$ -sas, him-by poor man him-to asked, he asked the poor man; i $gar\bar{\iota}b$ $m\bar{\iota}$ \bar{o} - $d\bar{a}$ -s, this poor man his-envy-by, from envy of this poor man. Compare the corresponding use of pronominal prefixes in several Nepal dialects, in Kuki-Chin, and so on.

Demonstrative pronouns are i, ido, id, and e, this; hve, hveda, u, that.

The interrogative pronouns are formed from the bases kha, and gu. Thus $kha-m\bar{\imath}$, who? $gu-dai-bat\bar{\imath}$, from whom? kha, what? $gu-l\tilde{a}$, how much? how many? $gumta-gan\bar{e}$, how-having-done? how? and so forth. By adding $r\tilde{\imath}$ or r the interrogative bases are made indefinite. Thus, $khami-r\bar{\imath}$ and khamir, a certain; $gv\bar{a}-r$, a certain; $kha-r\bar{\imath}$, khar, anything, some.

Relative pronouns are jē, jai, jaid, jaidaś, jaidō, who; jai-han-tā, whatever. They are Aryan loan-words. Thus, kō-su-s jaidaś sũar jān-sich, by the husks which the swine vol. III, PART I.

ate; sud $m\bar{i}$ jaidō-g tā $ny\bar{a}pan$ chyam, a foolish man whose one small house, who possessed a small house; $j\bar{e}$ -g $j\bar{e}$ sin, $g\bar{o}$ $lh\bar{e}$, mine what is, thine is.

Verbs.—The list of Standard Words and Phrases contains a series of verbal forms which do not occur in the specimens. On the whole, however, the conjugation in Rangkas is apparently less complicated than in the neighbouring dialects of Darma, Chaudangs and Byangs.

There is the same tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the verb, especially in the case of the second person. The past tense is sometimes formed by means of reduplication of the base, as is also the case in Chaudangsi and Brangsi.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive is formed from the bases lhé. ni, and si.
The following forms occur:—

TOHOWING 1		
	Present.	Past.
Sing. 1.	sisi	$sar{\imath}s$
2.	śiśin; lhēn	si-nun-s
3.	sin, śini; ni; lhē	sis, sich, sya-ch, si-thus ha-thig, this y-thu
Plur. 1.	na-si-su	šiš
2.	$sar{\imath}sar{\imath}n$	si-nai-s
3.	$sini$; $lhy\widetilde{a}$, i.e. $lh ilde{e}$	śich, thē

Other forms are śis, shall be; lhē-m ching-ni, to be is proper; ka-lhain, (in order that) we might be (merry), and so forth.

The bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The specimens contain very few forms of the present. In the first person singular we find the compound form sichan sis, I am dying; and in the second person rhai-san, thou livest, occurs. Both contain the verb substantive, rhai-sa-n also the suffix n of the second person. It will be seen that there is here no suffix denoting the first person.

The third person singular is formed in various ways. The base alone is sometimes used; thus, ding, he falls. In other cases the suffixes ni and t or d are added. Thus, rai-ni, he comes; hvē-t, he is grazing; khvā-d, he digs.

The list of words contains several additional forms; thus, sati, I strike; $sa\cdot ti-la$, I am striking; di- \acute{s} , I go; sai-t-na-la, thou strikest; di n, he goes; sai-ta-la, we strike; di-s-ung, we go; sai-ti-nala, you strike; di-sin, you go; sait-ki, they strike; di-n, they go.

Past time.—The common suffix of past time is s or su; thus, $l\bar{\iota}$ -s, he said; $g\bar{a}$ -su, he made. In the first person an i apparently precedes the s, and in the second person n, nau, nai, or nu is inserted. Thus, gai-s, I did; $t\bar{a}l$ -i-s, I transgressed; tang-n-su, gottest; kur-nau-s, or kur-nai-s, broughtest; $d\bar{a}$ -nu-s, gavest.

Instead of s we often find ch; thus, $r\bar{a}$ -ch, and also $r\bar{a}$ -j, he came : $d\bar{e}$ -ch, he went.

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Compound suffixes are sas, chas, and tas; thus, $rh\bar{u}$ -sas, asked; $th\bar{o}$ -chas, demanded; $g\bar{a}$ -tas, made. There are no instances of such forms in the first and second persons.

The s-suffixes are sometimes used in connexion with a prefix ka; thus, ka-lunch, got angry; ka- $h\bar{o}$ -sas, he was lost; ka- $rh\bar{o}$ -chas, he was alarmed.

The base is sometimes reduplicated in the past, and suffixes such as $d\bar{\imath}$, ti, and n, all probably various forms of the copula, are added. Thus, $ga - g\bar{a} - d\bar{\imath}$, he has done; $ga - g\bar{a} - ti$, thou gavest; $di - d\bar{\imath} - n$, he went.

Compound forms are rhai-n-sich, lived; $j\bar{a}$ -n-sich, were eating, and so forth.

Note, finally, isolated forms such as $lhangy\bar{a}n$, squandered; thum- $sy\bar{a}$, gathered; manai- $n\bar{e}$, entreated; $t\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{e}n$, $t\bar{a}$ -pach, and thai-pach, went, and so forth. Several additional forms will be found in the list of words.

Future.—The present is apparently also used as a future; thus, di- \acute{s} , I shall go; $l\ddot{e}$ -ti, I shall say. According to the list of words the most common future suffix seems to contain a t.

Imperative.—The base alone is often used as an imperative; thus, kur, take; $d\bar{a}$, give; chuksan- $g\bar{a}$, cloth make, put on. Common imperative suffixes are $n\bar{e}$, and $t\bar{e}$, the latter also occurring as tai and dai. Thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{e}$, give; $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, give; $g\bar{a}$ -tai, make; gvi-dai, bind.

The list of words contains several additional forms. No instances of their use are, however, given.

The materials available do not contain any example of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $h\bar{o}$, to feed; tung, to drink. The usual suffix is m or $m\bar{o}$; thus, sai-m chyung-ni, to strike is proper; di- $m\bar{o}$ -k man ma $g\bar{a}$ -s, going-of mind not made, he did not want to go; $p\bar{a}$ -mi-k, measuring for, in order to measure.

A suffix t apparently occurs in pyaugat, to fill. $L\bar{e}$ -san, word, is properly a past participle of $l\bar{e}$, to say.

Participles.—Participles which are used as adjectives are formed by adding n, past san, to the base; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -n sich, eating were; $s\bar{i}ch\tilde{a}$ -n sis, dying I am; $t\bar{a}$ -san $b\bar{o}jh$, the left load, the load which had been left; $py\bar{u}$ -san, filled, full.

The suffix s, $s\tilde{e}$, ch, chai, chu, or $ch\tilde{e}$ forms conjunctive participles. Thus, yan-s, hearing; $r\tilde{a}$ -ch, coming; $thuk-s\tilde{e}$, returning; $d\tilde{\iota}$ -chai, going; khisai-chu, despairing; $hr\tilde{\imath}$ - $ch\tilde{e}$, arising. Such forms are occasionally also used as adjectives; thus, khu- $r\tilde{a}ch$ $m\tilde{a}l$, theft-come property, stolen property.

Other conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes $n\bar{e}$, $(ny\bar{a})$ and $t\bar{e}$; thus, $v\bar{\imath}-n\bar{e}$, calling; $rh\bar{a}-n\bar{e}$, bringing; $d\bar{u}-ny\bar{a}$, gathering; $h\bar{o}-t\bar{\imath}$, leaving. In $p\bar{\imath}-k$ kurs, taking up carried, a suffix k has apparently been added. Compare $p\bar{o}-k$ sichas, having died was, had died.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma, or, sometimes, mu. Thus, $ma\ d\bar{a}$ - \acute{s} , did not give; $ma\ t\bar{a}lis$, I did not transgress; $l\bar{e}m$ - $um\ mu$ -ni, to say (worthy) not am.

Order of words.—The order of words is the same as in connected forms of speech, subject, object, verb. Adjectives and numerals precede the qualified word.

3 Q 2

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow.

[No. 44.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYĀ KHUN.

SPECIMEN I.

(DISTRICT ALMORA.)

LHĀNGTĪ SĒRĪ-GŌ RAMKŌ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Khamiri nī (i.e. mī)-ch \tilde{a} -k nisī Gãr khā sērī. khā ramkō, nyāpan-su Certain man-of twosons. And what whatstory, young-by apnō bā-j-chubã lī-s, 'hē bā, gō jāydād-pattī jai-gō jal įῖ hisfather-to ' O father, said, thyproperty-from myshare me dā. chyung-ganī jal jai ji jē ji dā.' Gār hvai-yart-patti give, whatmine proper-is sharemymegive.' Andthat-on-from usi-gundā-pattī apnō jal-gō chhē-tas. Gār mhan jyā mha lē, them-between-from hisshare divided.And daysmany notwere, nyāpan-sō dhuk-chhan duk-chhan dū-nyā hvānam dēś tābēn allallgathering younger-by far country went madān rhaich hvē-r apnō-gō gār māl-tāl lhangyān. Gār wrong living andthereown property squandered. And tuk-chhan-dhuk lhã-tas, hvē jab hvē dēś pūn kāl parēch. allwhen hehad-spent, thatcountry bigfamine fell, tang ka-lhij. Gār u ū hvē gār déś khamir jhyain destitute became. thathe And he and country 80me goodrakshā dī-chai nhai-ch, mi $\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{a}r}$ u-sū u-chubã apan rai-r suar withgoing stayed, man and him-by him his field-to swine pã-s. Gār hvidasu hō jaidaś sungar kosus jänsich hīsē apnō to-graze sent. And thosehusks-with whichswine ategladlyown dan pyangat $\mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ unsich. gār u-g khamiri-ś kharī ma dāś. belly to-fill he (?) wished, andhimany-one-by anything notgave. Gār jab hvē apnö dēś-chubã chyang-ra-ch hvēr-pattī lē-s, ʻ jē And when hehissenses-to returned there-from said, `mybā-k naukar õ dan-syu jansich, jā-m mhan gār jē father-of servants theirbelly-from foodmore eat, and \boldsymbol{I} phī sīchãn sis. Ji hrì-chē apnō bā-chubã diś gār u-chubã dyingI hunger am.rising own father-to will-go and him-to "hē lē·ti. bā. ii-s Bhagvān machchhā mu-ni gār " O will-say, father. me-by God's will (?) not-is and

Gār lēm-um mu-ni. gaiś. jē phir gō śērī sāman pāp gō I to-say And thy sonnot-am. of-thee before sin did.again gā-tai." chubã naukar Gār apnō-k bā-g $t\bar{a}$ Jō (i.e. jī) apnō make." And father-of servant ownnear own one MeGẵn (i.e. gẵr) hvānam \mathbf{u} ba-s hvānam-pattī hvē sīs. dēch. hrichē father-by hefar was, hisfar-from Andwent. arising hvēr-pattī sē-nyē u-chabã dayā rā-ch, $g\bar{a}r$ ō-bā-g gār ō-g ōn-s, there-from running himhis-father-of came, andpity and his 8aw, $G\bar{a}r$ chuk dās. sērī-su u-chabã lai-s gār lō-r ս-գ Andson-by him-to kiss gave. and claspedbosom-to hismachchyā ji•s Bhagvān yam bā, 'hē lē-s, God's will (?) according-to (?) me-by father, · 0 said, gē-s. Gār jē unnanē (*i.e.* sāmnē?) gō-g pāp gō-g gār mu-ni did.And sinthy*before* thyand not-is Gār bā-sō apnō-gō naukar lē-s. mu-ni.' limum sēri father-by own servants said. And not-am. to-say sonjhyān chuksam thai-nē ${
m rh}ar{
m a}$ gār i rhā-nē chuksan-gá. 'dukh-hvē bring and thisbringing put-on. taking-out robe good'all-from chugsan-gā. likē-r paul Gār lag-chhyab gār lā-rō ō Gar put. andfeet-on shoes Andring hand-on And hisjyū sērī pok-sichas, gār phir Ka-lai, i chyung-ni. jā-m įĩ dead-was, againsonthismyWhy, proper-is. my eating tanch.' Ājai hvai ka-hēsas hisam thyäk ka-hvāsas, tanch: hvē is-found.' Then theyfeasting merry again was-lost, is-alive; heka-lēs. made.

hã $G\bar{a}r$ u rā-ch rai-r śyach. pach sērī Ηã ō-g heAnd then coming field-in was. eldersonhisAnd togā-bājā-tus chyang-ra-j, u-su gār $ext{h}\widetilde{\overline{ ilde{a}}}$ $sv\tilde{a}$ rā-j ninam returned, him-by musicandcoming near and homeGār tā naukar vī-nē u-s sunais. nāchē-ch śabd called-having him-by servant heard. And onesound dancing-of u-chabang kha-sin?' Gār u-sū hvē thyā 'idō-g rhū-sas, him-to what-is?' And him-by thatmeaning (?) 'this-of asked, ihyain ga-gā-dī; kha-lai, Gō bā-ssō rā-ch. ʻ gō pi-khan lēs, has-made; why, father-by goodThy'thy brother came. said, bhītar gär u-s kalunch Gār u jhyain tang-s.' ũ u-s him-by insidegot-angry and Andhefound.' wellhim-by himbhai rā-ch gar bā-sō ō I-lēkhā gās. di-mō-k \mathbf{man} $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ came and father-by outhisnotmade. This-for mindgoing-cf (i.e. ji-s) lai-s, ' jēvan bā-chbã manai-nē. Går u-s ap-nō \mathbf{u} 'me-by. saidfather-to And him-by own entreated. him

i-lã baras-batī gō śya gai-ś, gâr ji-s gul-pair gō so-many years-from thy service did, andme-byany-time thy lē-san ·ma tālis. Gussu gul-pair tā nyāpan malā-ku rach wordnottransgressed.Thee-by any-time onesmallgoat-of kidlēk $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ dā-nus jē raksō-k dagar hēsas usi. Ηã i even notgavestfriends-of withmerry might-be. And thisgŏ bachhō-chan sērī dīn māl urais, jai hvē rā-j, thy harlots sonwith (?) property squandered, when hecame, $h\bar{a}$ u-lēkhā ga-s mhan khusī ga-gā-ti.' Gār Ō bā-s then thee-by him-for greatfeast madest. And hisfather-by u-jbang lē-s, 'sērī, gajē-raksh rhai-san, gār jē-g jē him-to said, 'son, thoume-with livedest, and mine what sin lhē. gō Ι bājibī lhē than jē khusis gār jhyain isthineis. This proper isthat (?) wemerry and **w**ell kalhain; ka-lai, i gõ pi-khan lhai jai pōk śichas, phir should-be; why, thisthy brotheriswhodeadwas, again tānch; gār kahōsas, thyāk-tāng-īs.' is-alive; andwas-lost, was-found-again.'

[No. 45.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

RANGKAS OR SAUKIYĀ KHAN.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT ALMORA.)

TĀ KATHĀ ŚINĪ.

ONE TALE IS.

Jaidaśu khich mi-g lēkh king khvāda hvē ding.

Whom-by other man-of sake-for pit digs he is-caught (?).

Gyār sang-khû mhan sud mī, jai-dō-g tā nyāpan chyam gār $t\bar{\mathrm{a}}$ very simple man, whose Certain village-in one small house and lāsung-māl rhain-sich. Ōg rakshā-sich kharī ō-dagar ris gān-syach some female-male-goats lived. neighbours-by him-with envy making ōg sudak-sich-man-sya ughāt tak-nē hvē sang-khu-patti lis milnat simplicity-by opportunity seeking him village-in-from to-expel attempt gān-sich.

made.

Hvē tā jvā jab ō-g lāsung-malā jhyārā-r dong-n-sich, day when his female-male-goats jungle-in grazing-were, them-by Then one u' tā bēr kik-tas gār imtā ga-nē dug sai-s. Hvē garības them one precipice-in throw and doing80 allkilled.That poor mi-sich hvē rai-malā bē khõs gār bē-chan gomta ganō simple man-by those cows-goats skin took-off and skinssomehow doing rangati-rã kurś. Am-ar nam kabēch, gār hvē-nā gudā phu-rī selling-for took. Way-on him nightbefell, andthere somecave-in Pyal-muñch hyangsu gar khu-mi khu-rach ka-rhaich. māl hvā nam-pattī Midnight after **8**0me stopped. thief stolen property far-from khu-në chyang-tas gar hvedas phuar ${
m d} ar{
m e}$ Hvē phu bhitar usī-gō gās. arrivedand them-by cave-at abode made. That cave inside their usī-g kharbarāt pan-nē hvē mī mban kabyūch gār hvē u-s bē-chanhearing that man much feared and him-by those skinskhũ-syũ jai rhā-s u-s aphī chyās-m maiki gās. Phu bhitar under which him-by brought himself to-hide attempt (?) made. Caveinsidebē kharbarat van-s khu-mī ka-rhō-chas gār khũ-mi-svach dhuk mul skinnoisehearing thieves were-alarmed andthieves-by alsilver michan jai hvēran sindēch kasēch. Dublō mī-s hvē mul which men thereSimple man-by that leaving ran. silver

sũar apan rasyā tās gār apnō tāpach. Ι mul jai u-s himwith took andown village-to went. This silver which him-by pā-mi-k tang-s u-s u-s parōs khamir-chubã tā sigā thö-chas. got him-by to-measure him-by neighbour some-to measure asked. mi-chas idő-gő $Hv\bar{e}$ paros $bh\bar{e}d$ gā-mō bāst \mathbf{ki} hvēdas kha That neighbouring man-by this-of discernment making for that him-by what khung-su lĩs rhai-s. vaktas. siga Hvē dubal mai-ś mul bottom-at brought, measuretarapplied. That simple man-by silver sigā jai dō-śich hvē dā-ś pā-nē gār u khung-su having-measured measure which borrowed that gave and its bottom-at tar-by mul kadōch. Idaś ō-g parosi-go mī-chan löbh chyang-rāch, his neighbourhood-of men some silver stuck. This-by avarice hvēdas garīb mī u-chabā rhū-sas, 'ga-su i-lã gār mul gumtā-ganē asked, 'thee-by so-much some silver how-doing them-by poor man that-to \mathbf{U} -s lē-s, 'apnō-g gu-dai tāngansu?' lāsung-mal bē Him-by said, 'self-of female-goats-male-goats skins having sold.' whence gottest?' ō-dās garīb mī gār \mathbf{mul} lōbh-sē $\bar{0}$ - $\underline{\sigma}$ parōs-as apnō-g poor man his-envy-by and silver avarice-by his neighbour-by Thisownsais gār bē-k duk rai-mal ō-g rang-k kurś. Gãr kha lē. killed and their skins-of to-sell took. all cows-goats And what happened, kī saudas sirpha mani mul tang-s. that him-by this-by bargain-by only little silver

1 ramkō-s riś rā-ch u-s garīb mī-g chim më puktas This matter-by anger coming him-by poor man-of house(-to) fire idō-gō phā-kũ gā-tas. Garib mi rai phā thum-sya gar and this-of ashesmade.Poor man all (?) ashes collected and one thailī-r tāsu, gār u-gō rang kurs thaipach. Am-rī $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{s}$ apno thaili to-sell taking bag-in put,itand went. Way-on him-by own bag gãr am-gu phēr·sū sī-tas tā tidhārũ-chubã jai ninam sich tī leftway-of corner-at andaspring-to which nearwater tung dēch. I-jyā-rō tā khich $m\overline{i}$ hī` bōjh hō-tī-tāś tī to-drink went. This-time-at oneothermanflourloadleaving water tung dēch. Thuk-sē u-s lhēsas apan bhārī sī-nē phā-g Returning him-by to-drinkwent. mistaking ownloadleaving ashes-of bōjh kurś gar apno-go syang dech. Hvē garīb lēk $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ thok-sas gãr load took and own home went. That poor man also returned and hvēr tā-san bōjh jai khich mi-s sī•nē dē-ch u-s pik other man-by leaving went him-by taking carried. there putloadwhichHvē bhārī-r kharī khasin i-bhitar van-nē u-s u tīl-s, That load-on somestrange-signs this-inside seen him-by itopening, hī pyú-san tang-s. $\mathbf{H}_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{a}}$ u-s bojh apno suar u kurś. jai-bă Then him-by that load his home-to took, so-that flour filledfound.

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hvē hi-g li-g andāj hā apnō-gō u-s gas, parōsī flour-of weight-of measuring made, then hisneighbour him-by thatthochusū. Ō-Ω parōsī hi sigā pā-nē garib mi-s apnō-gō asked. His neighbour flourknowing measurepoor man-by ovonbadlā chyam me chim-g phā-g hi tangsu u-s lēk apnō-gō pō-su, house-of ashes-of instead flour gothim-by alsoself-of house fire set,gãr hvē u-gō phā-gō rang $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ tāchu (i.e. tar-chū?), gār khisaichu apnö selling not and heits ashes-of could, despairing own gā-su rā-chu jaihantā pachhtachu. sõr gār u-s hvēntā barē whatever repented. home-to cameandhim-by didthat much

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

He who digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it.

In a certain village there lived a simple man who possessed a small house and some cattle. His neighbours envied him and tried to take advantage of his simplicity and expel him from the village.

One day when his herd of goats was grazing in the jungle, they threw them over a precipice and thus killed them all. The poor simple man took the skins of the cattle and carried them off to sell somehow or other. Night befell him on the way and he took shelter in a cave. After midnight some thieves brought some stolen property from a distance and took up their quarters before the cave. Hearing the noise made by them, as he lay within the cave, the man was much alarmed and tried to hide under the skins he had brought. Hearing the noise of the skins in the cave, the thieves were alarmed, and ran off leaving all the silver they had brought. The simple man took possession of the silver and went home. He asked one of his neighbours for a measure in order to measure the silver he had brought. The neighbour, who wanted to know what he had brought, put some tar on the bottom of the measure. After having measured the silver, the simple man returned the measure, and some silver was sticking in the tar. His neighbour became greedy and asked how he had got so much money. He said, 'by selling the skins of my flock.' Filled with envy and from avarice his neighbour then killed all his own cattle and took the skins off to sell them, but he only got very little in return for them.

He therefore got angry and set fire to the poor man's house. The poor man collected the asbes in a bag and went off to sell it. On the way he left his bag at a corner and went to drink water at a well in the neighbourhood. In the meantime another man left a load of flour and went to drink water. On returning he by mistake, left his own load there and went off with the ashes. When the poor man returned he took the load which the other man had left. He saw some strange marks on it, opened it, and found it to be full of flour. He went home, and again asked for the measure in order to know how much flour he had got. When his neighbour understood that he had received flour in return for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own house. He could not, however, sell the ashes, and went home in despair and repented much of what he had done.

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DARMIYA.

The Patti of Darma forms part of the Pargana of Darma in Almora. It is bounded on the north by Tibet; on the west by the chain containing the Panchachuli group and the Chhipula peak; on the south by a line drawn from the latter peak due east to the Kali River, and on the east by the chain culminating in Yirgnajung separating it from the Byangs Valley and Patti Chaudangs. Darma is sub-divided into the Malla and Talla, i.e. upper and lower pattis.

The inhabitants are Bhōṭiās, and their number was estimated for this Survey at 1,761.

A version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a translation of well-known popular tale have been forwarded from the district, together with a list of Standard Words and Phrases. The materials are not satisfactory, but they form the only basis of the remarks on Dārmiyā which follow.

Dārmiyā is closely related to the dialects spoken in the neighbouring districts of Byangs and Chaudangs. It has been much influenced by Aryan forms of speech in vocabulary and grammar, not however to the same extent as Chaudāngsī.

Pronunciation.—The phonetic system is richly developed. The vowels a, i, and u are both short and long. E and o are always marked as long. The marking of the other long vowels is not, however, consistent.

Final vowels are often interchanged or dropped. Thus the genitive suffix occurs in the forms $g\bar{u}$, $g\bar{o}$, gai, and g; the suffix of the case of the agent is $s\bar{u}$, sai, and s; the verbal noun ends in $m\bar{o}$, $m\bar{u}$ and m, and so forth.

Vowels are also often dropped in unaccented syllables. Compare luk- $ch\bar{o}$ and ka-lk- $ch\bar{o}$, became; ka-p- $t\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$, was found again $(p\bar{\imath})$; ka-p- $d\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{u}$, gave back, returned; $r\bar{a}$ -ln- $ch\bar{u}$ and $r\bar{a}$ -lan- $ch\bar{u}$, coming, and so forth.

It has already been mentioned that \bar{o} and \bar{u} often interchange; thus, $tad\bar{o}$ and $tad\bar{u}$, that; the locative suffix $r\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{u}$, and so forth. Ai is interchangeable with \bar{u} and \bar{o} in the suffixes of the genitive and in the case of the agent. Ai also interchanges with \bar{e} in the base sai, $s\bar{e}$, strike.

I am not sure how the sound which has been transliterated ng is pronounced. It seems probable that ng sometimes denotes the nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel and sometimes the guttural nasal.

With regard to consonants there are gutturals, palatals, cerebrals, dentals and labials, of aspirated soft consonants only dh, dh and bh occur.

There are two s-sounds, a dental s and a palatal sh, a dental r and a cerebral r, but apparently no z or zh.

Hard and soft consonants are often interchanged; thus, $ka-k\bar{a}-s\bar{u}$ and $g\bar{a}-s\bar{u}$, made; $khai-ch\bar{u}$ and $khai-j\bar{u}$, other; $it\bar{u}$ and $id\bar{u}$, that; $ph\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{a}$, father. It seems probable that we have here really aspirated soft consonants which are often also pronounced in such a way as to be hardly distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds.

Aspirated and unaspirated letters are sometimes interchanged; thus, apī and aphī, own; luk-chū and lhik-chū, became.

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Dropping of consonants seems to occur in forms such as $jy\bar{u}$, instead of ji- $g\bar{u}$, my; jangal-u, instead of jangal- $r\bar{u}$, in the jungle, and so forth.

Final consonants of Classical Tibetan are often dropped. Thus, $l\bar{a}$, Tibetan lag, hand; $ph\bar{u}$, Tibetan phug, cave; $gy\bar{u}$, Tibetan rgyug-pa, run, and so forth. In other cases a vowel is added; thus, $t\bar{a}k$ - \bar{u} , Tibetan gchig, one; nis- \bar{u} , Tibetan gnyis, two; tuk-u, Tibetan drug, six, and so forth.

The initial compound consonants of Classical Tibetan are commonly simplified; thus, rgyu-ba becomes $gy\bar{u}$, run; khyi becomes $kh\bar{\imath}$, dog; gtong-ba becomes $d\bar{a}$, gives; bzhi becomes $p\bar{\imath}$, four, and so forth.

We have no information about the use of tones in the dialect.

Articles.—There are no articles. Indefinite pronouns and the numeral $t\bar{a}k\bar{o}$, $t\bar{a}$, one, are used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns are sometimes used as a kind of definite article. Thus, $kham\bar{\imath}$ $b\bar{a}$, $gab\bar{u}$ $b\bar{a}$, a certain father, a father; $t\bar{a}k\bar{o}$ $cha-m\bar{e}$, a daughter; $t\bar{a}$ $jy\bar{a}$, a day; $id\bar{u}$ $ph\bar{u}$ - $g\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}r$ - $my\bar{a}$, at the door of the cave; \bar{u} $id\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}ng$ - $g\bar{u}$ $pis\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{u}$ $t\bar{a}ng$ $r\bar{o}$ -lan- $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he the hill-of top-on cattle grazing-is.

Nouns.—Gender.—The natural gender is distinguished by using different words, or by adding affixes denoting the gender. Thus, $b\bar{a}$, father; $min\bar{a}$, mother: lang, bull; $bain\bar{a}$, cow: $ma-l\bar{a}$, he-goat; $l\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, she-goat: $r\bar{a}ng$, horse; $m\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, mare: $ph\bar{o}$ - $ph\bar{u}$, male deer; $m\bar{o}$ - $ph\bar{u}$, female deer, and so forth.

Number.—The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is chan; thus, $r\bar{a}ng$ -chan, horses; cha- $m\bar{e}$ -chan, daughters. The list of words also contains forms such as $b\bar{a}$ titt \bar{i} and $dul\bar{o}$ $b\bar{a}$, fathers, lit. many fathers.

Case.—If we can trust the materials, the various cases are freely interchanged. Compare $id\bar{u}s\bar{u}$ $v\bar{o}-s\bar{u}$ $chim-r\bar{i}-s\bar{u}$ $l\bar{o}bh$ $pi-r\bar{a}-s\bar{u}$, then his neighbour-to avarice came, where the suffix $s\bar{u}$, which properly belongs to the case of the agent, is used to form a genitive and a dative.

The base without the addition of any suffix is commonly used to denote the subject of intransitive verbs, and the direct object; thus, $g\bar{u}$ - $g\bar{u}$ $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ pi- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, thy brother has returned; $ap\bar{i}$ dan $kv\bar{e}$ -n, his belly filling. The dative, and occasionally also the case of the agent, are sometimes used to denote the direct object; thus, ji- $s\bar{u}$ u-g $sir\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{o}$ $kam\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$, me-by his son-to struck, I have beaten his son; $id\bar{u}$ bai- $s\bar{u}$ $r\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{o}$, those skins-by to-sell, in order to sell those skins. In $us\bar{i}$ - $kh\bar{u}$ $kiktas\bar{u}$, them threw, they threw them down, the suffix $kh\bar{u}$ is added in order to denote the direct object.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent by adding the suffix $s\bar{u}$, s, which also denotes the instrument. Thus, $sir\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$ $lh\bar{e}-s\bar{u}$, the son said; $jy\bar{a}ng$ -s, with ropes.

The suffix of the dative is apparently $j\bar{o}$, $j\bar{u}$, also written $ch\bar{o}$, $ch\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{a}ng-m\bar{\imath}-ch\bar{u}$, to the servants; $b\bar{a}-ch\bar{o}$, to the father; $sahar-j\bar{u}$, to a city. This suffix is used in the same wide sense as Classical Tibetan la; thus, $ga-s\bar{u}$ tad \bar{o} kha- $m\bar{\imath}-j\bar{o}$ t $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$, thee-by that whom-with boughtest, from whom did you buy that? The case of the agent is occasionally used as a dative; thus, $chim-r\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$, to the neighbour.

The suffix of the ablative is $ch\bar{u}$, usually preceded by khar, on; thus, $v\bar{o}$ - $j\bar{o}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, from with him; $b\bar{a}$ -khar- $ch\bar{u}$, from a father. Another suffix of the ablative is $chy\bar{a}ng$; vol. III, Part I.

thus, bir chyāng jain, all from good, best. Instead of chū we occasionally also find $s\bar{u}$, i.e. apparently the suffix of the case of the agent; thus, $v\bar{a}nam - s\bar{u}$, from a distance.

The suffix of the genitive is $g\bar{o}$, $g\bar{u}$, gai, g, also written $k\bar{o}$, $k\bar{u}$, etc. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -chango, of fathers; cha- $m\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{u}$, of a daughter; $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -la-chu-gai bai, the skins of the sheep and goats; $sir\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{u}$, of a son, and so forth. The case of the agent, the dative and the ablative are occasionally used instead; thus, $id\bar{u}$ $s\bar{u}dh\bar{o}$ $m\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}h$ - $s\bar{u}$, out of envy of that simple man; $aph\bar{i}$ $chh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}$ $ph\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{u}$ philan, instead of the ashes of his hut; $khv\bar{i}$ -thai- $ch\bar{u}$ $m\bar{a}l$, theft-from property, stolen property. Sometimes also the genitive is indicated by simply putting the governed before the governing noun, without adding any suffix; thus, $ph\bar{u}$ $bhitar\bar{u}$ bai kharbar, cave within skins noise, the rustling of the skins in the cave.

The suffix of the terminative, which is commonly used as a locative, is $r\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{e}sh - r\bar{u}$, to a country; $rau - r\bar{u}$, in the jungle. Other suffixes of the locative are ninhi, and $my\bar{a}$; thus, $m\bar{a}l - t\bar{a}l - ninhi$, in the property; $d\bar{a}r - my\bar{a}$, at the gate.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $n\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}$, near; $t\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{e}$, with; $raksy\bar{a}$, together with; $kh\bar{u}$, in; $l\bar{e}$, into; $char\bar{\imath}$, from, added to the base; $d\bar{a}ngs\bar{u}$, for the sake of; $ramar\bar{u}$, under; $pisar\bar{u}$, on the top of; $t\bar{u}t\bar{u}$, $lkan-t\bar{\imath}$, before; $y\bar{u}ngk\bar{o}n-t\bar{\imath}$, behind; philan, instead of; $b\bar{e}r\bar{u}$, under, usually added to the genitive; and so forth.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify; thus, kha-mī jain mī, a good man. The particle of comparison is chyāng or chyāng-rī, compare Ladakhī sang; thus, bir chyāng jainū, all from good, best; usī pē vō rangsyā chyāng-rī yambā bū nisīnī, his brother his sister than more tall is.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify. There is no indication in the materials of the use of generic particles.

	I	We	Thou	You	He, she, it	They
Nom	$j_{ar{i}}$	in	gai	gai-nī	ū, vō	$usar{ au}$
Agent	$jar{\imath}$ - $sar{u}$, $jar{\imath}$ - s	in-sui, in-s	$ga-s\bar{u}, ga-s$	$gan ar{\imath}$ - $s(ar{u})$	u- sū	น ร ิเ-รนิ
Genit	$\int jar{\imath}\cdot gar{u}, ji$ - g	in - $g\bar{o}$	$g\bar{c}$ - $g\bar{u}$	ganī-gū	u -gō	$oldsymbol{usi-} g ar{u}$

Other forms are $jy\bar{u}$, my; $ning-r\bar{u}$, we (sio); $g\bar{o}-gun\bar{a}$, thine; $j\bar{\imath}$, he (sic); $ing-g\bar{u}$, his (sic), and so forth. The list of words also contains forms such as $ji-sn\bar{a}$, by me; $gan\bar{\imath}-sut\bar{a}$, by you; $u-khan\bar{a}$, in it, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are nai, $nad\bar{o}$, $nad\bar{u}$, $and\bar{o}$, this; id, $id\bar{o}$, $id\bar{u}$, $it\bar{u}$, that; tad, $tad\bar{o}$, $tad\bar{u}$, that; and so forth.

Interrogative pronouns are $kha-m\bar{\imath}$, what man? who? kha, what? $ul\bar{a}ng$, how much, how many?

Interrogative pronouns are sometimes also used as relatives; thus, $ul\bar{a}ng \ m\bar{a}l \ j\bar{\imath} \ chhy\bar{u}$ - $m \ nhin\bar{\imath}$, $j\bar{\imath} \ d\bar{a}$, how much property I to-get am, me give, give me the share of the property which I shall get. $Gab\bar{u}$ is probably originally an interrogative pronoun. It is often used as a relative; thus, $gab\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{u}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ $d\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$ kung khvai- $t\bar{u}$,

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aphī ukhnā dī-nī, he who digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it; tākō mī gabū-gō tākō chhānā nī-chū, a man whose a hut was, a man who possessed a hut; idū bai-gū bērū gabū-chū u-sai rai-chū, under those skins which he had brought.

Such clauses are formed according to Aryan grammatical principles. The Aryan relative $j\bar{o}$ is also often met with; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ $j\bar{o}$ $n\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$, bir $g\bar{o}$ - $gun\bar{a}$ $lh\bar{e}$, mine what is, all thine is.

In other cases demonstrative pronouns are used as relatives; thus, $nad\bar{u}$ $m\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ $id\bar{o}s\bar{u}$ $t\bar{a}ng-s\bar{u}$ $id\bar{u}$ $p\bar{a}\cdot m\bar{u}$, this property him-by brought that to-measure, in order to measure the property he had brought; $id\bar{u}$ $bh\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ $id\bar{u}s\bar{u}$ $khaij\bar{u}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{u}$ $s\bar{\imath}$ -lan $d\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, that load there other man leaving went, the load which the other man had left.

Other instances of relative clauses are $g\bar{u}-g\bar{u}$ nai $sir\bar{\imath}$, $h\bar{o}d\bar{u}$ $g\bar{u}$ $m\bar{a}lt\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ $kaph\bar{u}kai-s\bar{u}$, thy this son, he (i.e. who) thy property wasted; $us\bar{\imath}-g\bar{u}$ $chimr\bar{\imath}$ $g\bar{u}$ $us\bar{u}$ $d\bar{a}h$ $g\bar{a}-n\bar{o}$ $n\bar{\imath}-ch\bar{u}$, his neighbours who his envy making were.

It will be seen that there is no fixed way in which relative clauses are expressed. Aryan principles are gradually being introduced. They have not, however, as yet vindicated themselves as really belonging to the language.

In addition to the relative pronouns we may also mention conjunctions such as $gab\bar{u}$ bakht, when; jab, when; ki, that, and so forth.

Indefinite pronouns are $kham\bar{\imath}$, a certain; $gab\bar{u}$, a certain; $kha-m\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, anyone; $khai-r\bar{\imath}$, anything; $khai-ch\bar{u}$ and $khai-j\bar{u}$, other, and so forth.

Verbs.—Dārmiyā conjugation is based on the same principles as those found in other connected forms of speech. The various tenses are not formed from different bases as in classical Tibetan, but by means of suffixes. There is a distinct tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the form of the verb, at least so far as the second person singular is concerned. The suffix of that person is n; thus, sai-t-an, strikest.

Verb substantive.—The usual bases of the verb substantive are $lh\bar{e}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{\imath}$, and t. In the present tense we find $lh\bar{e}$ for all persons and numbers, and also forms such as $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, is; (ching) $n\bar{\imath}$ and (ching) $s\bar{\imath}$, is (proper); $nhin\bar{\imath}$, am; $n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, is, are; kha mang- $s\bar{e}-n$, what are you called? $luk-ch\bar{u}$, am, is; ma $lhik-ch\bar{u}$, am not; $r\bar{o}-lan$ $t\bar{a}t\bar{a}$, grazing is, and so forth.

The corresponding past tense is $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}s$, was; $n\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}n$, wast, we were, you were; $n\bar{\imath}$ -san- $s\bar{\imath}u$, he was; $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}u$, he was, they were.

Finite verbs.—The verb substantive is freely used in the formation of the various tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The present tense is formed by adding $s\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, or other forms of the verb substantive to the base. In the first person singular we find forms such as $sai-t\bar{\imath}$, strike; $d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, go. In the second person singular we find $sy\bar{o}ng-si-n$, thou livest; in the third person singular $r\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, comes; $khvai-t\bar{a}$, digs; and in the third person plural $g\bar{a}yt\bar{a}$, they make. The list of Standard Words and Phrases further contains forms such as sai-tan, thou strikest, we strike; $sai-t\bar{a}$, you strike, they strike; $d\bar{\imath}-si-na-l\bar{a}$, thou goest; disvan, we go; $disi-n\bar{\imath}-l\bar{a}$, you go; $d\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}$, they go.

Compound forms are syōngksi-nī, he lives; rōlan tātā, he is grazing, and so on.

Past time.—The usual suffix of the past tense occurs in various forms such as $s\tilde{o}$, $s\tilde{u}$. s, $ch\tilde{o}$, $ch\tilde{u}$; thus, $lh\tilde{e}-s\tilde{u}$, he said; $g\tilde{a}-s$, he made; $t\tilde{a}-ch\tilde{o}$, he went; $r\tilde{a}-ch\tilde{u}$, he came.

In the first person an element $y\bar{e}$, ya, y, or $\bar{\imath}$ is apparently inserted before the tense suffix; thus, $gamcha-y\bar{e}-s\bar{u}$, I have walked; $s\bar{e}-y\tilde{a}-s$, I struck, we struck; $di-y\tilde{a}-s$, we went; $g\bar{a}-y-s\bar{u}$, I did; $kam-\bar{\imath}-s\tilde{u}$, I have beaten; sai-lan $t\bar{a}-ya-s\bar{u}$, striking I went, I was striking; $g\bar{a}-ln-\bar{a}$ $t\bar{a}-y-s\bar{u}$, I was doing, and so forth. The same element is sometimes also suffixed in the third person; thus, ma $d\bar{e}-ya-s\bar{u}$, did not go.

In the second person an n, often followed by a vowel, is inserted; thus, $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest; $t\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$ and $t\bar{o}$ -na- $s\bar{u}$, boughtest; $t\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{u}$, foundest. In the plural we find $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{o}$, you went; $s\bar{e}$ -s, you struck.

The suffix of past time is sometimes added to the participle ending in lan; thus, $khar\bar{\imath} rupay\bar{a} \dot{q}ab$ -lan- $ch\bar{u}$, some rupees were sticking. Such forms are properly conjunctive participles.

Instead of $ch\bar{u}$ we once find $j\bar{u}$; thus, $d\bar{\imath}\cdot j\bar{u}$, he went.

The suffix of the past is sometimes preceded by other suffixes such as $s\bar{\imath}$, ta, $t\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}$, but I am not in a position to state how those additions modify the meaning. Thus, $sy\bar{o}ng-s\bar{\imath}-ch\bar{u}$, he lived; $chhb\bar{\imath}-ti-s\bar{u}$, he divided; $park\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$, he wasted; $sai-ta-s\bar{u}$, they killed; $pug-ta-s\bar{u}$, he set. Forms such as $s\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$, left; $g\bar{a}-d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{u}$, did, are probably compounds and literally mean 'leave-went,' 'do-went' respectively.

Two prefixes occur in the formation of the past, viz., ka and pa; thus, ka-lk- $ch\bar{u}$, became; ka-jyar- $ch\bar{u}$, feared; ka- $ph\bar{u}kai$ - $s\bar{u}$, wasted; pa- $th\bar{o}k$ - $s\bar{i}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, returned, etc. Pa probably also occurs in $park\bar{e}s\bar{u}$, wasted. It seems to take the form pi in pi- $kv\bar{o}r$ - $s\bar{u}$, he carried off; pi- $lhv\bar{e}$ -thai- $ch\bar{u}$, he was lost. The prefix pi, p, often seems to mean 'back,' 'again;' thus, pi- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he has come back; ka-p- $t\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$, is found back; ka-p- $d\bar{a}$ -su, he gave back.

Other forms such as $sa\bar{\imath}-t\bar{u}$, I had beaten; $d\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}$, I went; $pakl-t\bar{a}$, applied; $g\bar{a}y-t\bar{a}$, made; $yan-hi-t\bar{a}$, heard; $r\bar{u}-hi-t\bar{a}$, asked, probably belong to the present.

Compound forms are $g\bar{a}y$ - $lh\bar{e}$, have done; $t\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{u}$, he found; ching-n $n\bar{i}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, he wished; $j\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{i}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, they were eating, and so forth.

Future.—The present is sometimes used as a future; thus, $d\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, I will go; sai- $t\bar{\imath}$, I may beat. Usually, however, a suffix $y\bar{a}ng$ or $y\bar{a}$ is added, and various forms of the verb substantive are suffixed; thus, $lh\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{\imath}$, I shall be; $ly\bar{a}ng$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, I will say; $s\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he will strike, and so forth.

Imperative.—The simple base without any suffix is used as an imperative; thus, $d\bar{a}$, give; $d\bar{e}$, go. Suffixes such as $n\bar{i}$, $y\bar{a}$, $ty\bar{a}$, are often added; thus, $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$, give; $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$, put; cha- $y\bar{a}$, put; $g\bar{a}$ - $ty\bar{a}$, make. There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is used as an infinitive or verbal noun; thus, $r\bar{\alpha}ng$, to sell; tung, to drink. The common suffix of the verbal noun is $m\bar{o}$, $m\bar{u}$, or m; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, to eat; $p\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{u}$ $d\bar{\alpha}ngs\bar{u}$, in order to measure; $g\bar{a}$ -m $d\bar{\alpha}ng$ - $s\bar{u}$, in order to make. Other verbal nouns are formed by adding n, nan, lan, lin, etc.; thus $kv\bar{e}$ -n and $kv\bar{e}$ -lan, filling; $r\bar{\alpha}ng$ -nan- $ch\bar{u}$, from selling, by selling; \bar{u} - $g\bar{u}$ $s\bar{u}dh\bar{o}$ - $lh\bar{e}$ -lin- $ch\bar{u}$, his simple-being-from, on account of his simplicity.

Participles.—The suffixes $n(n\bar{u})$ and lan are also used in order to form various participles. Compare classical Tibetan la and na. Thus, $ch\bar{\imath}ng$ -n $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, he was wishing; $j\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, they were eating; $g\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, they were making; $sy\bar{o}ng$ -s-in $n\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, he was sitting, he lived; $d\bar{\imath}$ -lan, going; $kh\bar{o}$ -lan, taking out. Instead of lan we occasionally find lang; thus, $th\bar{o}$ -lang, asking; rai- $l\bar{a}ng$, bringing.

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Another participle, which apparently has the meaning of a conjunctive participle, is formed by adding thai; thus, $r\bar{\imath}$ -thai, rising. Such forms are probably all verbal nouns, and they are very commonly put in the ablative, with the meaning of a conjunctive participle. Thus, lup- $ch\bar{u}$, becoming after, having passed; $r\bar{a}$ -lan- $ch\bar{u}$, having come; $g\bar{a}$ -lin- $ch\bar{o}$, by making; $th\bar{o}k$ -thai- $ch\bar{u}$, on returning.

Other forms of the conjunctive participle are pak- $s\bar{\imath}$, having left; yan- $s\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{u}$, having heard; $chhb\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{e}$ -l, dividing; and $r\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}$ $g\bar{a}$ -la-b, anger making, on getting angry. The two latter forms are rather doubtful.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is sufficiently indicated by the absence of the suffix of the agent after the subject.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma. Thus, $ma\ d\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{u}$, did not give; $ma\ d\bar{a}$ -n- $s\bar{u}$, didst not give; $ma\ g\bar{a}$ -ya- $s\bar{u}$, I did not do (translated 'I did not transgress' in the specimen). There are no instances of the use of an interrogative particle in the materials available.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The qualifying word precedes the qualified one. By the introduction of relative clauses from Aryan forms of speech the order of words has, however, to some extent been disturbed.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow.

[No. 46.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

DĀRMIYĀ.

SPECIMEN I.

(PATTI DARMA, ALMORA.)

URAITĀ SIRĪ-KŪ RĪ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Gabū mī-kū nisī sirī nī-chū. Gangrū-hang usī-sū mīn Some man-of twosons were. Andthem-of smallbā-chō lhē-sū. 'ai bā. māl-tāl sirī-sū ing-g ninhī ulang son-by his father-to said. · 0 father. property inhow-much chhvū-m nhi**n**ī chhbī-pēl māl jī iī dā.' Id-ō-sū u-sū to-get dividing property I amme give.' And him-by ing-gū $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{ar{a}}\mathbf{l}$ chhbī-ti-sū. Gāngrū usī-gundā dal j**y**ā \mathbf{ma} hisdivided. them-between property And many daysnotsirī-sū māl-matā võ bir lup-chu min raksyā gā-lin-chū vānam son-by hissmallallproperty together being doing far tā-chō, gāngrū tarē yān-tai-dī-lin-chū dēś-rū āphī-kū māl-matā went, and there country-to riotously his property Gāngrū-hāng parkī-tē-sū. usū kharch bi gā-lin-chō parkē-sū, Andallwasted.him-by expendituremaking spent, jagā-rō dal akāl idō-sū itū lukchō. ū tang kalk-chū. place-in bigfamine thatcame, and hebegan-to-be needy Hãng ū itū dēś-rü tākō jain mī-tē raksā dī-lan thatcountry-in he And onegoodman-with together going syong-sī-chū, insú u•sū ũ apī rē-rū sīphā rõ phung-sū. lived, and him-by himhis field-in swine to-graze sent. it Gāngrū ū kō-chī gāngrū gērā-mērā jõ sīphā jā-nu And hethose barks and berries which swineeating khushī-sū nī-chū apī dan kvē-n ching-n nī-chū; gāngrū u-sū veregladlyhisbelly to-fill wishing was; andhim-to khai-rī kha-mi-si-ri ma dā•sū. Gängrü idasū api-chi rā-ln-chū anything anyone-by notgave. And then his-senses coming lhē-sū, ʻjyū bā-kō u-sū dang-mī ٧ō dan kvē-lan yambā said. him-by my father's servants their belly filling more tāng-nū ni-chu, gāng-rū ji phi-lan hīchī-sī. $\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{i}}$ ri-thai jyū getting were, and I hungering die. I rising my

gāngrū "ai dī-sī u-jō lyang-ti, bā, bā nīmā iī-sū " O andhim-to father gowill-say, father, me-by near marjī-ku ultō gā-va-sū, gō-lkan-tī paimēsar-kū gāngrū pāp gā-ya-sū. God-of will-of did. andof-thee-before sin againstdid.Jī-su Gangrū jī phirī gō sirī lhē-mō $\mathbf{m} \mathbf{ar{u}}$ $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ luk-chū. jī-gū (sic) I again thyson to-say worthy notam.MeAnd thygātyā.", dang-mi tai-kai-rā-nu Gāngrū ٧ō $b\bar{a}$ nimā rī-thai tā-kō make. " servant like-coming And his futher near rising one vānam-sū tāng-sū, Gamkī võ vānam nī-chū, u-sũ bā-sū gangrū dī-chū. hisfather-by far-from andBut he far was, saw. went. u-sū gyū-lan, syō-kāng-chū, gangrū u-sū phā-lan-rai-sū bā-sū $\mathbf{v}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ pitied, andhim-by running, him embraced father-by his u-jō kur-sū. Gāngrū sirī-sū lhē-sü, 'ai bā, $h\bar{u}$ gā-lan gāngrū making And son-by him-to said, · 0 father, kisstook. and ultō gō-lkain-tī paimēsar-kū marjī-gū gāngrū pāp gāy-lhī, hāng jī-sū thy-sight-in God-of will-of againstandsindone-is, and me-by lhē-mū lhik-chū.' Gam-luk-chē-rī bā-sū sirī ma apī gō iī not worthy-became.' Butfather-by histo-say I thy sonthai-lan dāng-mī-chū lhē-sū, 'bir rai-lyā, gāngrū idū chyang jainū $g\bar{e}$ taking-out bring, and 'all from good robethat servants-to said. gāngrū vo lā-rū lag-chhēp gāngrū lik-rū rai-lin-chū chū-nī, paulā hand-on and feet-on shoes hisring andput-on, bringing jā-mō tung-mō hān⊈ ārand gātvā. Gami-ki Gängrū ing-gū chū-nī. drinking andmerriment make. Becauseeating Andour put. chōk-tāngchū; jī-gū sirī pung-chū, pī-hvē-thai-chū, phirī gāngrū phirī ū alive-became; helost-was, andagain again died, my sonjain Idosū phirī ū gā-sū. ka-p-tang-sū. they merry made.Andagainback-found-was.'

nī-chū. Gāngrū idosū vo rā-chū, pūn sirī rē-rū vā-sũ ū Hang hisAndthen he coming, bigsonfield-in was. So-much time-at u-sū thing-lan chhā-lan gāngrū von-chū, **i**dōsū sõng-rū nīnam gāng-rū then him-by singing playing andarriving, village-to near and tākō dāng-mī hvī-lan-chū rū-hi-tā, yan-hī-tā. Gāngrū ũ∙sũ thing-mū servant calling him-by oneasked, And heard. dancing luk-chu?' Gängrū u-sū u-jó lhē-sū, 'gū-gū nū-nū dāngsū 'naduk kha is? And him-by him-to said, 'thy brother meaning this-of what jātī dā-sū, kha-dang-sū, ki u-sü gāngrū gū bā-sū nī-nī, pī-rā father-by feastgave, why, thathim-by and thycomeis, tāng-sū.' gā-sū idōsū jī jain-lhō-chū-lhō-pyā Idösü u-sū rīs u-jō safe-and-sound IAnd him-by anger madeand found.' himbangrū idōsū ũ dāngsū $b\bar{a}$ rā-chū dē-ya-sū. Id ũ ma **hhitar**ũ outsideandhimfor his father comewent. This notinside 3 s VOL. III, PART I.

manë-lan-patë-lan gā-sū. Idosū ū bā-sū iavāb dā-lan lhē-sū ki, made. And hefather-to entreating answergiving saidthat, \mathbf{a} l $\widetilde{\widetilde{\mathbf{a}}}$ vovã. iĭ khar-chū in-g ga-jō lanbē gā-ln-ātāy-sū, idōsū jī-sū · lo. I so-many years from thyservicedoing-was, and me-by kha-jyā-rī gō amān \mathbf{m} a gāyasū; idōsū ga-sū kha-jyā-rī jī-jō $t\bar{a}$ any-day did (sic); thyordernotandthee-by any-day me-to one minlachū-lē ki įῖ ma dā-n-sū halū-sāth raksvā ānand gā-tī. small kid-even notgavestthat \boldsymbol{I} friends withmerry might-make. Gamluk-chë-ri sirī hōdū gū·gū \mathbf{nai} chamē raksyā gū māl-tālū Butwhothy thisson girlswith thyproperty bakht ka-phūkai-sū, gabū ũ rā-sū, idū bakht ga-sū ū-dāng-sū timesquandered, what he came, thattimethee-by his-sake-for ka-dā-n-sū.' Idosū bā-sū u-jō jātī lhē•sū, 'sirī, gai jī raksā him-to madest.' Andfather-by 'son, feast said, thoume with idōsū jī jō barābar syöngsin, nini, bar gō-gunā lhē. Andū ching-ni livedest, andminewhat alwaysis, allthine is. This proper ki ning-rū ānand $g\bar{a}$ -mkhushi nī-chū par-ni idōsū gā-mō par-nī. thatmerry makeshouldwas weandhappymakeshould. jō Khadāng-sū, nadū \mathbf{g} ō рē pung-sū, phirī chok-tang-cho: idōsū thy brother who thiswas-dead, Why, again alive-became: and phiri ka-p-tang-sū.' pī-lhvē-thai-chū, found-back-was.' lost-was, again

[No. 47.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

DARMIYA.

SPECIMEN II.

(PATTI DARMA, ALMORA.)

Gabū-sū dāng-sū kung khvai-tā āphī ukhnā dī-nī. Tākō mī Whom-by for pitdigshimselfin-it falls. \boldsymbol{A} man rī. story.

Gabū sang-khū tākō dalō sūdhō mī. gabū-gō tākō chhānā Certain village-in hutonevery simpleman, whoseonekhai-rī ma-lā-la-chū nī-chū, syong-sin-ni-chū. Usī-gū chimri. gāngrū andsome sheep-goats lived. Hisneighbour, were, usū gū dāh gā-nō nī-chū, u-gū sudhō-lhē-lin-chū bakht vō-lan-chū who himenvy making were, hissimplicity-by opportunity coming u-gū sang-khū kharchū thai-mū lanch gāv-tā. Idōsō jyā iab hisvillage-in from expelling endeavour made.Anddaywhen malā-la-chū rau-rū tā-kō bē-sū u-gō rau kur-sū. idū usī-khū precipice-from sheep-goats jungle-in grazing took, they themone pa-chhyāng kiktasū; idumanā gā-lan-chū bir sai-tu-sū. down threw: thus killed. doingall

Usū garīb sūdhō mī-sū idū ma-lā-la-chu-gai khō-lan rai-chū bai poor simple man-by those sheep-goats-of taking broughtskinsbai idū sahar-jū gangrū gabū rangkur-sū. Am-rū u-sū namsvā Way-on him skinscertainnightand thosecity-to to-sell took. gāngrū ū tākō luk-chū. chibri-chū, janggalū idū phù-rū bāsā andjungle-in shelter-taking became. befell, heonethatcave-in kha-mī-gū khvī-mī khvī-thai-chū $m\bar{a}l$ rai-lang Pēl-man-chhū dī-lan propertybringing somethief theft-of Midnight going dāngsū gā-sū. Tdū idū $m\bar{i}$ -s \bar{u} idū phū•gū dār-myā rā-chū, gāngrū made.Thatand thatman-by that cave-of door-on lodgings came, kharbarā van-si-chū idū midalō ka-jyar-chā, phū-gū bhitarū u-gũ hearing thatman muchfeared, cave-of insidehis noise gabū-chū u-sai rai-chū, apī-gū idūsū idū bai-gā bē-rū. gāngrū him-by brought, hishim-by thoseskins-of under, which and kharbar lai-lin-chū khushīnū chyā-sim-gū dhandā gā-sū. Phū bhitarū bai hearing noisethief inside skins effort made. Cave hiding-of 3 s 2 VOL. III, PART I.

ka-jvar-chū jyar-lan-chū gāngrū udū raksā rai-chū bir rupayā jō was-startled andstartledallrupees whichhimwith brought idū-khanā paksī tā-bu-chū. Sūdhō mī-sū tadū rupayā apī pāsū-rū there leaving fled.Simple man-by thoserupees his possession-in kakā-sū, gāngrū sōng-rū tāyp-chū. apī did. andhisvillage-to went-back.

Nadū mālū idō-sū tāng-sū idü pā-mū dāng-sū u-sũ chimri-This property him-by gotthat measuring for him-by neighbours $s\bar{u}$ kha-mī-lē-cha-rī tā khāng thō-lang kur-sū. Ū chimrī-sū from certain-from a wooden-measure asking took. That neighbour-by idū bhūtī $g\bar{a}$ -mdāng-sū, idū-sū kha rai-sū, khāng-gū that-of knowledge making for, him-by whatbrought, measure-of rūm-rū līsū pakl-tā. Idū sūdhō mī·sū rupayā pā-lan khāng bottom-at applied. Thatsimpleman-by rupees measuring measur**e** hãng idō-sū idū-gū rūm-rū ka-p-dā-sū. līsū-sū kharī rupayā dab-lan-chū. returned, andthenitsbottom-at tar-by somerupees stuck.

chimrī-sū Idū-sū vō-sū lōbh pi-rā-sū. U-sū sūdhö mī-sū neighbour-to That-from hisavarice came. Him-by simple man-from ' ga-sū rū-lā pā-sū ki, alāng rupayā gam gā-lan gāngrū khai ' thee-by asking askedthat, so-many rupees whatdoing and what tāng-nū-sū.' U-sū lhē-sū ki hisāb-sū malā-lā-chū-gū apī bai gottest.' Him-by thatrate-at saidownsheep-goats-of skins sūdhō dāh-sū rang-nan-chū. Idū mī-sū gangrū rupayā lōbh-sū That simpleman-of envy-from selling. and rupees avarice: from u-sū chimrī-sū aphū bir ma-lā-la-chū pung-sai-tu-sū, gāngrū idū hisneighbour-by own allsheep-goats killed, andthose hãng-idō-sū rāng-mō kōr-sū, gãchhlai, khai-dang-sū, bai-sū usū idŭ to-sell took. butskins in-vain. why, him-by that siraph pan-sū alī-pā rupayā tāng-sū. Idū-dāng-sū rīsū gā-lab (sic) only few bargain-from rupees got. Therefore anger making mī-gū chhānā-khū mē pugtasū gāngrū idū-gū sūdhō phā gā-dī-sū. hut-insimple man-of firehim-by setandthat-of ashes made. jamā Sūdhō mī-sū phā gā-sū gāngrū tākō thailī-rū tā-sū, Simple man-by ashestogethermadeandonebag-in put, rāng dī-jū. Am-tham gāngrū idū u-sŭ jī•gū thaili am-gũ to-sell anditwent. Way-on him-by his bagway-of sī-dī-sū, gāngrū tākō tham-rū dhārū-rū, jō alīpā vānam-rū. tī andon left, one spring-at, whichlittledistance-at, water dī-chū. Idū bakht tung tākō khaichū $m\bar{i}$ laii-gū bhārī idu-khū Thatto-drink went. time one other flour-of man load there si-lan dī-chū tī tung dī-chū. Thok-thai-chū u-sū lhai-thai-chū leaving went water to-drink went. Returning him-by mistaking

 $D\bar{A}RMIY\bar{A}$. 501

bhārī kur-lan gāngrū aphī dī-sū. si-lan phā-gū am-rū apī-gū bhārī load taking andhiswent. leaving ashes-of way-on own load hẳng khai-jū Sudhō nī-jū pa-thōk-sī-chū, u-sū idū bhārī idūsū $m\bar{i}$ him-by load thereother alsoreturned, andthatSimpleman āng-lan pi-kvor-sū. Idū bhārī-rū khai-rī mi-sũ sī-lan dī-chū, That load-on sometaking-up took.man-by leaving went, phar-sū laii-sū chibung-nū khai-chu idū-sai sai tāng-lan-chū u•sü filled thatflour-by opening strange marks seeing him.by söng-rū kur-sū, idū-sū aphī u-sū tāng-nī-sū. Idősű idū idũ bhārī brought, home-to him-by Then thatandfound. he loa.lown dāngsū phiri aphū chim-rī-gū idū laii-gū chyar-sū antāj neighbour-of for again his weighing measure flour-of that chim-rī-sū hisāb pai-lan-chū U-gū nad thō chū. khāng Hisneighbour-by thisknowing asked. way wooden-measure philan laii tāng-chū, tō idū aphī chhānā-jū phā-gū sūdhō mī-sū ushes-of in steadfound, hut-to flourthenthatman-by own simplechhānā-lé ${f m}{f ar e}$ pō-sū, hẳng idəsü idü ս-ցն phā-gū rāng mī-sū apī ma set. and then itsashes-cf selling not man-by own hut-to firetar-chū. hẵng khi-sai-lan son x-rū thōk-thai pi-rā-sū gängrū įō gā•sū andhopeless village-to returning cameandwhatdoing could, u-sű lhē-sū idū-dāng-sai dalō chích-chū. him-by therefore muchrepented. was

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it. A tale.

In a certain village there lived a very simple man who possessed a hut and some sheep and goats. His neighbours who envied him, took opportunity of his simplicity, and tried to drive him out of the village. One day when his sheep and goats were grazing in the jungle, they threw them down a precipice and killed them all.

The simple poor man took the hides of the sheep and goats, and went to a city to sell them. On his way night befell him, and he took refuge in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came, bringing some stolen property, and sat down at the entrance of the cave. Hearing the noise, the man within the cave became much alarmed and tried to hide himself in the hides, which he had brought. On hearing the rustling of the hides in the cave, the thief was startled and ran away, leaving all the money he had brought behind him. The simple man took the money in his hand and went home.

In order to measure the money he had brought, he went to one of his neighbours and asked for a wooden measure. In order to ascertain what he had brought his neighbour applied tar to the bottom of the measure. When the simpleton had measured his money, he brought the measure back, and some rupees stuck in the tar at the bottom. The neighbour then became greedy and asked the simple man how and where he had got

so many rupees. He said that he had got them by selling the hides of his sheep and goats. Filled with envy and greed his neighbour then killed all his own sheep and goats, and took the hides away to sell them, but in vain, for he only got a few rupees in exchange for them.

He then got angry and set fire to the simple man's hut, and reduced it to ashes. The simpleton put the ashes together in a bag, and went off to sell them. On the way he left his bag somewhere and went a little off to a spring, in order to drink water.

In the meantime another man, who carried a load of flour, left his load there and went to drink water. On returning he made a mistake, left his own load there, and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton came back, he took the load which the other man had left, and went off. Seeing some strange marks on the load, he opened it and found it to be full of flour. He then brought the load to his house, and in order to see how much flour there was, he again asked for his neighbour's measure. When the neighbour had ascertained that the simpleton had got flour in exchange for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own hut, but was not able to sell the ashes. He then became afflicted and went home, and much regretted what he had done.

CHAUDĀNGSĪ.

Chaudangs is the dialect spoken in Patti Chaudangs in Almora. Chaudangs is situated between the Kali and Dhauli Rivers, from their confluence northwards. It is about twelve miles in length, and about eight miles in breadth, containing about 100 square miles of mountainous country between Khela and Nirpaniyodhura. The inhabitants are Bhōṭiās, and they occupy about eleven small villages.

The revised estimate of the number of speakers is 1,485.

The Chaudangsi dialect has not been dealt with by any authority. The remarks which follow are based on the materials forwarded for the purposes of this Survey, viz., a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, a version of a well-known popular tale, and a list of Standard Words and Phrases. They have all been prepared by Babu Gobind Prasad, B.A. None of them are originals, but they have all been translated into the dialect. It is not therefore certain that they in all particulars faithfully represent the real state of affairs. The ensuing remarks are, however, exclusively based on them, and they are therefore given with some reserve.

Chaudāngsī has been influenced from various sources, and is in some respects a mixed form of speech. Aryan vernaculars have contributed to the vocabulary, and also, to some extent, modified the grammar. There are also indications which point to an old influence exercised by other forms of speech.

Pronunciation.—The vowels a, i, and u may be long or short. E and o are apparently always long. Long and short vowels sometimes interchange in the same word; thus $at\bar{i}$ and ati, that; $j\bar{i}$ -g and ji-g, my; $m\bar{a}ng$ and mang, a plural suffix, and so forth. The specimens are not sufficiently accurate to enable us to lay down definite rules about such points.

Final vowels are often dropped; thus, $at\bar{\imath}$, ati, and at, that. This is very commonly the case in suffixes. Thus the suffixes of the case of the agent and the genitive are usually s, g, respectively. Sometimes, however, fuller forms ending in $s\bar{e}$, sai, and gai, respectively, are also used; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ -s and $j\bar{\imath}$ -sai, by me; $ap\bar{\imath}$ -g and $ap\bar{\imath}$ -gai, his. Similarly, the suffix of the most common verbal noun is m, but sometimes also ma; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -m, to eat; $d\bar{\imath}$ -m, to go; ra- $r\bar{a}$ -m- $ch\bar{u}$, on becoming; $sy\bar{u}$ -syunj-ma- $ch\bar{u}$, having collected.

On the other hand, an a is sometimes inserted between concurrent consonants in order to make the pronunciation easier. Thus, tung-a-m, to drink; am-a-g, of the road, and so forth.

Different vowels are often interchangeable; thus, $lh\bar{\iota}$ -s, and $lh\bar{e}$ -s said; \bar{o} and \bar{u} , he; $rangsy\bar{a}$ and $ringsy\bar{a}$, sister; $ing-k\bar{o}-t\bar{\iota}$ and $yung-k\bar{o}-t\bar{\iota}$, behind; $dh\bar{a}ng-m\bar{\iota}-dhung-m\bar{\iota}-m\bar{u}$ -mang, servants, and so forth. Compare the various re-duplicated forms of verbs.

Final consonants are often dropped. Thus, $l\bar{a}$, Tibetan lag, hand; $ph\bar{u}$, Tibetan phug, cave, and so forth. Compare, however, tig, Tibetan gchig, one; tuk, Tibetan drug, six, and so forth. Note also $n\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan gnas, to be; $lh\bar{\imath}$ -s, Tibetan bzlas, said, etc.

The numerous initial compound consonants of classical Tibetan are usually simplified. Thus, $chh\bar{u}$, Tibetan bgo, share; $p\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan bzhi, four; $ch\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan bchu, ten; jyad. Tibetan brgyad, eight; lak-chhyap, Tibetan lag-gdub, ring; tig, Tibetan gchij, one; nis, Tibetan gnyis, two; ngaii, Tibetan lnga, five; mul, Tibetan dngul, silver; $gv\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan dgu, nine; $ph\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan spyug, expel; $lh\bar{a}$, Tibetan zla, moon; $lh\bar{\imath}$ -s, Tibetan

bzlas, said; chim, Tibetan khyim, house; dhung, Tibetan rdung, beat; ra-ch, Tibetan rna-ba, ear, and so forth. Note the substitution of a cerebral for compounds containing an r in tuk, Tibetan drug, six; $d\bar{a}$, Tibetan phrag, envy.

In a few cases a prefixed consonant is, however, retained, and a vowel is inserted in order to facilitate the pronunciation. Thus, pi- $d\bar{\imath}$ -s, gone; pi- $r\bar{\imath}d$, come; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ -d- $al\bar{\imath}$, was dead.

Note finally the existence of soft aspirated consonants; thus, dhung, beat; $dh\bar{a}ng-m\bar{\imath}$, slave.

There is no indication of the existence of tones in the materials available.

Articles.—There is no definite article. The pronoun $ud\bar{\imath}$, $ud\bar{\imath}n$, a certain, and the numeral tig, one, are used as an indefinite article; thus, $ud\bar{\imath}$ $b\bar{a}$, tig $b\bar{a}$, a father; $ud\bar{\imath}-n$ $m\bar{\imath}-g$, of a man.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished in the usual way by means of separate words or by adding words denoting 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$, man; mi- $n\bar{a}$ $sir\bar{\imath}$, woman: $s\bar{e}nd$, boy; cha- $m\bar{e}$, $girl: r\bar{a}ng$, horse; $m\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, mare: $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$, he goat; $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, she goat: $n\bar{a}u$ - $khv\bar{\imath}$, dog; $chh\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{a}u$ - $khv\bar{\imath}$, bitch, and so forth.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The usual plural suffix is māng or mang; thus, mī-māng, men; ling-māng, bulls; mā-sāng-lā-sāng-mang, sheep and goats. Note the reduplication of the noun in dhang-mī-dhung-mī-mang, servants. The list of words further contains forms such as bā titi, fathers; mat bā, many fathers, fathers.

Case.—If we can trust the specimens, the various cases are frequently confounded. The nominative, i.e. the case of the subject of intransitive verbs, does not take any suffix. Thus, na-g na-nū pirād-anī, thy younger brother has returned.

The same form is often also used to denote the object of transitive verbs; thus, ji-s $v\bar{o}$ $sir\bar{\iota}$ mat $chy\bar{a}k$ - $d\bar{a}gas$, I have beaten his son with many stripes. Often, however, the dative, or even the genitive, is used instead; thus, u-s $s\bar{u}dh\bar{o}$ $m\bar{\iota}$ - $j\bar{a}$ $r\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$, him-by simple man-to asked; $at\bar{\iota}$ bai- $m\bar{a}ng$ -g u-s rang-m $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, those skins-of him-by selling carried, he carried those skins off to sell them; $at\bar{\iota}$ $bh\bar{a}r\bar{\iota}$ -g $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}$ -r- $t\bar{a}$, he brought that load. I am not, however, sure that the use of the genitive suffix g in such cases is correct.

The subject of transitive verbs is usually put in the case of the agent, which is formed by adding the suffix s to the base; thus, $b\bar{a}$ -s $lh\bar{\imath}$ -s, the father said. Instead of s, we sometimes find fuller forms such as $s\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{e}$, sai; thus, kha-mi- $s\bar{\imath}$ - $r\bar{\imath}$ u- $j\bar{a}$ khai- $r\bar{\imath}$ ma $d\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ anyone-by him-to anything not gave; $ud\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\bar{\imath}n$ - $s\bar{e}$ $ch\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$ -g $m\bar{a}l$ rai-g ra- $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, a thief-by theft-of property bringing came; u-sai $s\bar{e}$ -s, him-by struck, he struck. Sometimes also the suffix of the agent is dropped; thus, \bar{u} $th\bar{\imath}$ -thar- $t\bar{a}$, he sent; sai- $ph\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}$ -d- $n\bar{\imath}$ -s, the swine were eating.

The suffix s is also used to denote the instrument; thus, $d\bar{a}$ -s, by envy; kharbar-s, by the noise.

The suffix of the dative is $j\bar{a}$; thus, us $ap\bar{i}$ -q $b\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{a}$ $jav\bar{a}b$ $d\bar{a}$ -q $lh\bar{i}$ -s, him-by his father-to answer giving said. $J\bar{a}$ apparently corresponds to classical Tibetan la, Ladakhī a. It has already been remarked that it is also used to form the accusative. Moreover, it denotes the various relations indicated by the locative and terminative cases of classical Tibetan; thus, chim- $j\bar{a}$, to the house; $r\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{a}$, in the fields, etc.

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The suffix of the ablative is *chī*, usually preceded by *kung*, in, or *khar*, on. Thus, *dhāng-mī-dhung-mī-mang-kung-chī*, from among the servants; *biyar-khar-chī*, from a precipice; *sōng-kung-khar-chī*, from the village.

Instead of chī we sometimes find chyāng; thus, parmēsarai-g marjī chyāng jamtam, God's will from against; lai chyang bud, all from good, best.

The suffix $ch\bar{\imath}$ is apparently also used to form a genitive and a locative. Thus, $at\bar{\imath}$ $r\bar{a}j\hat{u}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ $ud\bar{\imath}n$ bud $m\bar{\imath}$ - $j\bar{a}$, to a good man of that village; $s\bar{\imath}r$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, in the jungle.

The usual suffix of the genitive is g, instead of which we once find gai; thus, $m\bar{\imath}-g$, of a man; $ap\bar{\imath}-g$ and $ap\bar{\imath}-gai$, his own. It has already been remarked that the suffix g is occasionally added in the accusative. The genitive is sometimes expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix; thus, $n\bar{a}$ $b\bar{a}$ chim- $j\bar{a}$, in thy father's house; $n\bar{a}ch$ -syung-d $kal\bar{a}t$, dance-making (-of) noise.

It has already been remarked that the suffix $ch\bar{\imath}$ sometimes also has the meaning of a genitive.

There are only some few traces of the terminative; thus, $h\bar{e}$ -r, on; kha-r, on; $t\bar{i}$ -chen- $t\bar{u}$, in a corner; ya-r, in; $j\bar{i}tu$ and $j\bar{i}t\tilde{u}$, before; $lar\bar{e}$, before, and so forth. Usually, however, the dative is used instead.

The dative is also used as a locative. Instances have already been quoted under the head of dative. The usual locative suffix is kung; thus, $ph\bar{u}-kung$, in the cave. The real suffix is probably ung; compare at-ung, there; compare $j\bar{\iota}tu$ and $j\bar{\iota}t\tilde{u}$, before. A suffix $y\bar{e}$ can be added; thus, am-kung- $y\bar{e}$, on the road; at-ung- $y\bar{e}$, there.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Some are added to the base; thus, $gund\bar{a}$, between; $h\bar{e}r$, on; $mitat\bar{u}$, under; yar, in; $t\bar{e}$, with; $t\bar{e}$ - $bh\bar{a}$, $t\bar{\imath}$ -bha, together with. Others are preceded by the governed noun in the genitive; thus, $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ and $b\bar{e}l\bar{\imath}$ -s, for the sake of (also added to the base); $bhitar\bar{u}$, within; $d\bar{a}ng$ -s, for; jitu, near; $lar\bar{e}$, before; $n\bar{\imath}nam$, near; yung- $k\bar{o}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, behind. $Bh\bar{a}$, together, and $t\bar{\imath}$, on, are added to the dative.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative; thus, sid $r\bar{a}ng$, the white horse; $m\bar{\imath}d$ $sir\bar{\imath}$ the younger son. Forms such as raksid, worthy; angsid, tall, are formally participles.

The particle of comparison is chyang or chyāg-rī; thus, lai chyang bud, all from good, best; u-g pī vō rangsyā chyāg-rī bhung-tai anī, his brother is taller than his sister. Instead of chyāg-rī bhungtai we should probably read chyāng-rī bhungtai. Compare Ladakhī sang.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They precede the word they qualify; thus, nis siri, two sons.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

	I	We	Thou	You	He, she, it	They
Nom.	$j\bar{\imath}$	in	çan	gani	$ar{u},var{o}$	usī
\mathbf{Agent}	ji-s, ji-sai	in-s, in sai	ga-s, ga-sai	ganī-s, -sai, -sē	u-s, u-sai	usī-s, -sai
Genitive	ji-g	in-g	na-g, n ā	ganī-g	u-g	usī-g

Other forms are $j\bar{\imath}-d\bar{a}ng-su$, $j\bar{\imath}-d\bar{a}ng-s\bar{e}$, $j\bar{\imath}-d\bar{a}ng-ch\bar{\imath}$, for me; $in-j\bar{a}-khar-ch\bar{\imath}$, from us; $n\bar{a}-d\bar{a}ng-s$, for thee; $v\bar{o}$ $b\bar{e}lch\bar{\imath}$, for his sake; $us\bar{\imath}-gund\bar{a}$, between them, and so forth.

Demonstrative pronouns are hi- $d\bar{\imath}$, this; $at\bar{\imath}$, at, that; at-ung, into it; $at\tilde{u}$ khar- $ch\bar{\imath}$, from them.

The Aryan loan-word $ap\bar{\imath}$, self, is used as a reflexive pronoun; thus $ap\bar{\imath}\cdot\bar{a}p$, he himself; $ap\bar{\imath}\cdot g$ and $ap\bar{\imath}\cdot gai$, own.

Interrogative pronouns are $kha-m\bar{\imath}$, what man? who? kha, what? $ul\bar{a}ng$, $ul\bar{a}$, $ul\bar{a}ng$ -an, how much, how many? $han\bar{a}$ syung-ag, how doing? how? $kha-l\bar{e}-ki$, $kha-ch\bar{a}r-ki$, why? that, because. Indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives by adding $r\bar{\imath}$; thus, $kha-m\bar{\imath}-s\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, anyone-by; $kha\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$, anything. Note also $ud\bar{\imath}$, $ud\bar{\imath}n$, a certain; $ud\bar{\imath}n$, another; $ud\bar{\imath}n$, some.

Relative pronouns are $j\bar{o}$, $j\bar{e}$, who, which; jai-g, whose; $j\bar{o}$ -kha- $r\bar{\imath}$, whatever. The relatives are Aryan loan-words, and relative clauses are usually formed according to Aryan grammar. Thus, tig $m\bar{\imath}$, jai-g tig $chhand\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{\imath}nn\bar{\imath}$, $h\bar{a}ng$ $r\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, one man, whose one hut was, also lived; $rupiy\bar{a}$ $j\bar{o}$ u-s u- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $bh\bar{a}$ rai-sid- $n\bar{\imath}s$ $atungy\bar{e}$ $hv\bar{e}$ -g $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, the rupees which him-by him-with brought-had there leaving went, he went away leaving the money he had brought; $j\bar{o}$ ji-g $an\bar{\imath}$, $at\bar{\imath}$ na-g $an\bar{\imath}$, what mine is, that thine is.

In $j\bar{o}$ na-g $m\bar{a}l$ - $t\bar{a}l$ $chy\bar{u}$ -chyu-ma- $ch\bar{u}$, who thy property squandered-having, the conjunctive participle is used after the relative pronoun. In such cases we can detect traces of a more ancient state of affairs, when relative clauses were expressed by means of participles.

In this connexion we may also note that Chaudangsi has borrowed some Aryan conjunctions such as jab, when; ki, that. Adverbial clauses are, therefore, often expressed as in Aryan forms of speech, instead of by means of participles.

Verbs.—The Chaudāngsī verb is, broadly speaking, formed according to the same principles as those prevailing in other connected forms of speech. There are, however, at least two points in which the dialect has developed on different lines. In the first place we find that the language makes frequent use of reduplication in the formation of verbal tenses such as $k\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, brought. The reduplication usually occurs in the past tense of verbs, and it will therefore be dealt with later on. Forms such as syung- $t\bar{a}$ and $sy\bar{u}$ -syung- $t\bar{a}$ made, seem to show that the reduplication simply, intensifies the meaning of the verb, and it should therefore perhaps be compared with the reduplication in Mundā languages.

The other characteristic feature of Chaudāngsī grammar is the distinct tendency to distinguish the various persons of verbal tenses, at least in the singular. Thus, sai-tū, I strike; sait-an, thou strikest; sai-tū, he strikes. A similar tendency is also found in other connected forms of speech. The formation of the second person singular in Chaudāngsī is interesting. An n is added to the base in the present tense; thus, lhē-n, art; saitan, strikest. This n is followed by other suffixes, especially in the past; thus dē-n-ā, goest; sē-n-s, struckest; di-n-as, wentest; tō-n-as, broughtest; syung-n-as, didst. This use of the pronominal suffix n before the tense suffix corresponds to the practice in compound tenses in the Muṇḍā languages. Compare Muṇḍārī si-tan-ing-tae-ken-a, ploughing-I-was, I was ploughing. It is therefore possible that the distinction of person in verbal forms is not only due to the influence exercised by Aryan vernaculars but also to the existence of a pre-Aryan element in the population.

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Verb substantive.—The bases of the verb substantive are $lh\bar{\iota}$ or $lh\bar{e}$ and $n\bar{\iota}$ or $n\bar{e}$. The latter base is often preceded by an a in the present. It is perhaps the last remnant of an old prefix; compare classical Tibetan gnas-pa, to live, to stay. I cannot ascertain any rule for the use of this a, for we find forms such as chin- $n\bar{\iota}$ and chin- $an\bar{\iota}$, it is proper, used promise uously. The usual forms of the present tense are as follows:—

Sing. 1. *lhē*, *anī-yē* Plur. 1. *lhē-nē*2. *lhē-n*3. *lhē*, *anī*, *nī*, *anēn* (sic).
3. *lhē-nē*, *lhī-nī*, *ana-nē*.

The plural forms are apparently compounds. The difference between the second person plural on one hand, and the first and third persons on the other, is probably

artificial. Compare the form lhī-nī, they are.

Another base at, or perhaps t, occurs in $gan\ kha\ m\bar{\imath}n\ at$, thy what name is? The same base is probably contained in $ruksid\ ma\ t\tilde{\alpha}y\bar{e}$, I am not worthy. $T\tilde{\alpha}y\bar{e}$ should perhaps be written $tangy\bar{e}$ and is probably a future. Compare the remarks under the head of participles, below. Compare also id or d in rai-s-id, brought; $j\bar{a}$ -d- $n\bar{\imath}s$, ate, and so forth.

The base $lh\bar{\iota}$ apparently also occurs in the form $al\bar{\iota}$. Compare $t\bar{a}ng$ -d- $al\bar{\iota}$, is alive; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ -d- $al\bar{\iota}$, was dead, and so forth.

The past tense is formed as follows:-

Sing. 1. $n\bar{\imath}y\bar{e}$ -s Plur. 1. $n\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{h}\bar{e}$ -s 2. $n\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ -n-s 2. $n\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{h}\bar{e}$ -s

3. $n\bar{\imath}s$, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$. 3. $n\bar{\imath}-nh\bar{e}-s$, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$.

In one place a form ka- $lh\bar{\iota}$, was, also occurs. The initial k perhaps represents the old prefix g.

It will be seen that l and n are freely interchanged in the various forms of the verb substantive. The consonants are perhaps, as in so many other cases, simply phonetical doublets.

Other forms of the verb substantive are $ma\ n\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am not; $n\bar{\imath}-g$, living, being; $lhy\bar{a}ng$, I shall be; $niy\bar{a}ng$, will be, is; $n\bar{\imath}yang-n\bar{\imath}$, will be, are; $lhy\bar{a}g-\bar{e}$, may be; $lh\bar{e}-n\bar{\imath}$, to be, and so forth.

Finite verbs.—The various bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the tenses of other verbs. The number of forms is very great, and it is not always possible to analyse them with certainty. The following is a synopsis of the principal forms occurring in the materials available.

Present time.—A common present tense is formed by adding $n\bar{\imath}$ to the base; thus, $chhy\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, I get; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, he goes; $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, he comes; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, we go, they go; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, you go. The interchange between d and d in the base $d\bar{\imath}$, go, is probably due to the existence of an r in the original base; compare classical Tibetan 'a-gro-ba and 'a-dong-ba, to go.

No corresponding form occurs in the second person singular. In $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{a}$, thou goest, a suffix \bar{a} is added to the personal suffix n. This \bar{a} is perhaps a form of the copula.

In di- $y\bar{e}$, I go, the suffix \bar{e} or $y\bar{e}$ is perhaps also an old copula. It is apparently only used in the first person singular. Compare $an\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I am; ma $t\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I am not. Forms such as $buj\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$ -s, he entreated, apparently show that it cannot be restricted to that form.

Another present is formed by adding t, probably the suffix of a present participle, to the base. This t is then followed by \tilde{u} in the first person singular; an in the second vol. III, PART I.

person singular; \bar{a} in the third person singular, and $an\bar{e}$ in the plural. Thus, $sai\text{-}t\text{-}\bar{u}$, I strike; sai-t-an, thou strikest; $khv\bar{e}\text{-}t\text{-}\bar{a}$, he digs; $syung\text{-}t\text{-}an\bar{e}$, they do. Other, compound, forms of the present are $syung\text{-}t\bar{a}t\bar{u}$, I am dying; si-chig $an\bar{i}y\bar{e}$, I am dying; $j\bar{a}\text{-}g$ $an\bar{e}n$, he is grazing; $sy\tilde{o}k\text{-}sid\text{-}an\bar{i}$, he is sitting, and so forth.

Past time.—The present tense is often used with the meaning of a past; thus, $r\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he came; $ma\ tar$ - $n\bar{i}$, he could not; syung- $tan\bar{e}$, they did; $t\bar{a}$ - $tn\bar{e}$, they began; mat-chvaung- $by\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he was much alarmed. Forms such as kab- $l\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$, overtook; $lh\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{a}$, said, are probably of the same kind.

The common suffix of past tenses is s or as; thus, $d\bar{e}$ -ya-s, I went; tan-s, he saw; syung-s, he made; $bujay\bar{e}$ -s, he entreated. Instead of s, we sometimes find $s\bar{o}$ or ch; thus, syung- $s\bar{o}$, he did; tan-ch, he was found.

In the second person singular s is preceded by the pronominal suffix n; thus, $s\bar{e}$ -n-s, struckest; $t\bar{o}$ -n-as or $t\bar{o}$ -ni-s, boughtest; $d\bar{a}$ -n-as, gavest; syung-n-as, madest.

Forms such as $s\bar{e}$ -g-as, I struck; sai-g-as, I have struck; $d\bar{a}$ -g-as, I have given; $t\bar{a}l\bar{e}$ -g-s, I transgressed, are only used in the first person singular. The g which is inserted before the tense suffix is probably a pronominal suffix of the first person. Compare Kanāw^arī and connected dialects.

Various suffixes can be added to the form ending in s, such as id (compare classical Tibetan yod), $t\bar{a}$, ni, and so forth. Thus, rai-s-id, had brought; tan-s-t- \bar{a} , he found; $b\bar{a}b$ - $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$, he stopped. Such forms are all compounds. The same is the case with forms such as $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ -s, we struck, they struck; $s\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{i}$ -s, you struck. Other compounds are formed by adding the verb substantive to the participle ending in d or id; thus $j\bar{a}$ -d- $n\bar{i}$ -s, eating were; $ta\bar{i}$ -s-id- $n\bar{i}$ -s, he had found; tai-s-id- $al\bar{i}$, found, he has been found; $t\bar{a}ng$ -d-ka- $lh\bar{i}$, alive became, and so forth.

A past participle, which is used to form a compound past tense, is derived from the base by adding a prefix pa, pi, or pu. Thus, pi- $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, he went; pa- $jy\bar{a}ng$ -d a- $l\bar{\imath}$, dead is, he has died; pa- $jhy\bar{a}ng$ -ach, he has died; pi- $r\bar{a}$ -d $an\bar{\imath}$, he has come back, and properly also pu-nyar-t and pu-nyar $al\bar{\imath}$, he was lost.

A prefix ka occurs in forms such as ka-syung- $t\bar{a}$, did; $dh\bar{a}s\bar{\iota}$ ka- $l\bar{\iota}$ -chu, he has become married; $t\bar{a}ng$ -d ka- $lh\bar{\iota}$, he became alive. In kab- $l\bar{\iota}$ - $n\bar{\iota}$, overtook, kab is used instead.

The past tense is very often formed by adding suffixes such as $t\bar{a}$, etc., $n\bar{\imath}$, and $tat\bar{a}$, etc., to a reduplicated base. Final consonants are not repeated in the reduplication. The vowels are usually the same as in the base. E and ai, however, are reduplicated by means of $\bar{\imath}$; \bar{o} by means of $\bar{\imath}$; and ya is repeated in the form i. If the original vowel of the base is short, it is often lengthened in the reduplication. Thus, $sy\bar{\imath}-syung-t\bar{\imath}$, I have done; $k\bar{\imath}-k\bar{o}r-t\bar{a}$, he carried off; $i-yang-t\bar{a}$, he heard; $si-sai-t\bar{a}$, he killed; $l\bar{\imath}-lup-ta-t\bar{a}$, he applied; $sy\bar{\imath}-syung-tan\bar{e}$, they did; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, he went; $ra-r\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, he came; $t\bar{\imath}-t\bar{e}-n\bar{\imath}$, he wished. Note $pu-pi-ta-t\bar{a}$, applied; $pu-pv\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}$, took $ph\bar{\imath}-phar-t\bar{a}$, opened, where the \imath in the repeated syllable seems to be due to the influence of the following p.

The reduplicated base is sometimes followed by the past suffix si or chi, to which $n\bar{\imath}$ is added; thus, $ip\bar{a}$ -da-dang-si- $n\bar{\imath}$, they were startled; $h\bar{\imath}$ - $h\bar{\imath}$ -chi- $n\bar{\imath}$, he asked; katp-chi-ni, they struck.

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Note finally forms such as $chh\bar{u}$ -chhu- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$, divided; $ph\bar{u}$ -phu- $k\bar{a}y$ - $t\bar{a}$, wasted. Ti in the former is probably the same as ta, and $k\bar{a}y$ in the latter seems to belong to the base.

Future.—The suffix of the future is apparently ang; thus, lhy-āng, I shall be; dang-yē, I shall go; lhī-yang, I shall say; in-sai sē-yang-nē, we shall beat.

This form is also used to denote what may, or will probably, take place; thus, ulang un ku-kat niyāng, how many years will he have lived? how old is he?

The nature of the final consonant of the future suffix is not quite certain. Forms such as $s\bar{e}$ -ya-n, thou wilt strike; ma $t\tilde{a}$ - $y\bar{e}$, I shall not be, point to the conclusion that the vowel of the suffix is simply nasalized. Forms such as $lhy\bar{a}g$ - \bar{e} , I may be, on the other hand, seem to show that the suffix contains a g, if the g of this form is not a pronominal suffix of the first person singular.

Forms such as $syung-lh\bar{e}$, might make; $syung-n\bar{e}$, should make, are originally compound forms of the present.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $lh\bar{e}$, be; $d\bar{e}$, give; tay, put. Forms such as $j\bar{a}$ -g- $n\bar{e}$, eat, are apparently compounds, 'eating be,' compare $d\bar{e}$ -g- $an\bar{e}$, go, lit. going be. The same is perhaps the case with forms such as tai- $n\bar{i}$, put; chuk-ta- $n\bar{i}$, put on, and so forth. The final $n\bar{i}$ of such forms can, however, also be a plural suffix. Compare Manchātī, etc.

The most common imperative suffixes are apparently y, ya, or $y\bar{a}$; thus, syung-y, do; $hav\bar{e}-y$, draw; dhung-aya, beat; $gv\bar{\imath}-ya$, bind; rai-iya, bring; $d\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$, give. Compare also $d\bar{e}-y\bar{e}$, go; $j\bar{a}-g-y\bar{e}$, eat.

A suffix san or chyan is added in kor-san, take; ong-chyan, see.

Forms such as $j\bar{a}m$, eat; chham, walk, are originally infinitives.

There are no instances in the specimens of a negative imperative.

Verbal nouns.—The base alone is occasionally used as a verbal noun; thus, tung, to drink. The genitive of this form is commonly used as an adverbial and conjunctive participle. See below.

The usual verbal noun ends in m; thus, sai-m, to strike; pim-m, to fill; syung-m $b\bar{e}-l\bar{i}-ch\bar{i}$, in order to do; $j\bar{a}-m$ $yamb\bar{a}$, eating exceeding, more than they can eat; $r\bar{a}ng-am$, to sell; $by\bar{u}-m-s$, fearing-with, from fear, and so forth.

The suffix $n\dot{a}$, in $lh\bar{e}$ -m- $n\bar{a}$ ruksid, worthy to be called, is probably a dative or locative suffix.

Other tense bases can also be used as verbal nouns; thus rang-s-id-s, by selling.

Participles.—Verbal participles are formed by adding the suffix d (id) or t; thus, $j\bar{a}$ -d ($n\bar{\imath}s$), eating (was); pi- $r\bar{a}$ -d ($an\bar{\imath}$), come is; $ch\bar{\imath}$ -bin-d, full; ruk-s-id, worthy; ang-s-id, high; punyar-t, lost, and so forth.

A very common adverbial and conjunctive participle is formed by adding the suffix g, i.e., by putting the base in the genitive. Thus, $d\bar{\imath}$ -g, going; tharch syung-g, expenditure making. Thōk-sig, in thōk-sig $r\bar{a}$ -g, coming back, is apparently the genitive of the past base. Forms such as ra-chig, rising; si-chig, dying, apparently also contain the suffix ch, s, which is used in the formation of the past tense.

A conjunctive participle is formed by adding $ch\bar{u}$ to the verbal noun in m; thus, $sy\bar{u}$ -syung-ma- $ch\bar{u}$, having done; $h\bar{u}$ -hu-im- $ch\bar{u}$, having called; $r\bar{\iota}$ - $r\bar{e}$ -chim- $ch\bar{u}$, rising; ra- $r\bar{a}$ -m- $ch\bar{u}$, becoming.

Isolated forms are tan-nī, seeing; syung-am, making, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Forms such as jiyō dungs, I am struck, probably mean 'me struck.' The passive forms occurring in the list of Standard Words and Phrases are not, however, so clear that they can be analysed with certainty.

Causals.—The materials available are not sufficient to show how causals are formed. We may perhaps compare sai, kill; $s\overline{i}$, die: rai, bring; $r\overline{a}$, come, and so forth.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma $lh\bar{\iota}-n\bar{\iota}$, did not pass; ma $d\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, did not give; ma $t\bar{a}l\bar{e}-g-s$, I did not transgress; ma $d\bar{a}-n-as$, didst not give.

There are no instances of an interrogative particle in the specimens.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. Qualifying additions precede the qualified word. The indirect object sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the direct one. Under the influence of Aryan vernaculars, relative sentences and other subordinate clauses are commonly expressed by using relative pronouns and conjunctions.

[No. 48.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAUDĀNGSĪ.

Specimen I.

(PATTI CHAUDANGS, ALMORA.)

PHUKĀ SIRĪ-G RIĪ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Udin mi-gnis siri ni-ni-ni. Hang atũ-khar-chī mīd-s api-g Certain man-of Andthem-from twosons were. young-by own lhī-s, 'hē bā, mālmatā-kung-chī jē chhū jī chhvū-nī, jī dā.' father-to said, 'O father, property-in-from which share I give. gundā u-g jō māl-tāl chhū-chhu-tītā. Hāng mat usī-s usī jyā him-by them between his which property divided. And many days māl-tāl bhā ma lhĩ-nĩ ki $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{d}$ sirī-s lai syū-syung-ma-chū vānam were that young son-by all property together made-having far pi-dī-nī, hāng achhai luchā-kām kung ni-g apī-g mālmatā there riotous-deeds went, and living owncountry allproperty phū-phukāy-tā. Hāng jab jõ u māl nī-s lai kharch syung-g And when his what property was allexpenditure making rājū-kung mat chvū-chvu-ma-chū, atī akālo lī-lī-nī, hāng ū tang li-li-ni, that country-in and he needy became. wasted, bigfamine arose, rājū-chī udīn bud mī-jā bhā Hāng ū atī di-g ni-ni-ni, hang he that country-of certain good man-to together going stayed, api-g khēti-kung saiphā rō-m bēlī-chī thī-thir-tā. Hāng ū ātī-jā ŭ him hisfield-in swinegrazing forAnd sent. he he gãr sŏ-s jō saiphā jā-d khusī-s apī-g kō nī-s atī dan those bark and berries-with which swine eating were gladlyownbelly pim-m tī-tē-nī, hāng kha-mi-sī-rī u-jā khai-rī \mathbf{m} a dātā. Hang ab anyone-by him-to any thing gave. Andfill-towished, and notwhen bhūrī-dām dhāng-mīu-s lhī-s ki, ʻji-g bā-g ū apī-jā phām rā-nī hiredhim-by said that, 'my father-of servantshe self-to sense came dhung-mi-mang-kung-khar-chi ulāngan jā-m yambā kutū tan-d-nieating morebreadin-from how-many gettingsi-chi-g anī-yē. Jī rī-rēchim-chū ji-g ba-g vang-nē, hāng jī khī-g I risen-having dyingfather-of andI hungering am.are, parmēsarai-g marjī "hē bā. iī-s dang-yë lhī-yang, hāng u-jā jītũ God-of "O father, $m\epsilon$ -bywill and him-to will-say, will-go neur

pāp syū·syung-tū. Gar jī phirī na-g chyang jam-tam hāng na-g jītū I again Andand of-thee before sin did. thy) from against apī-g bhūrī-dām lhē-m-nā tāye; jī kāng ruks-id ma dhāngsirī servantsto-be-called notam; mealsoown hiredworthy 80n jikã syungy.", mī-dhung-mī-mang-kung-chī tig Hang νō rachi-g api-g likemake." in-of one Andherising his jab bā-g jitu di-s. Parantu ū mat vänam nī-s ki u-g bā-s went.Butwhen far that his father-by father-of near hevery waskhãt hān⊈ tan-s hāng u-jā rā-nī, jhyang-g u-s dī-g himsaw and him-to compassion came, andhim-by running going gale-kung kū-kōr-tā hũ da-dā-tā. ū hāng Hang sirī-s u-jā neck-on carriedand kissAnd him gave. son-by him-to parmēsarai-g gãr lhī-nī-tā. 'bā, jī-s marjī chyang jam-tam na-g God-of 'father, me-by willfrom againstsaid. andthy najar-kung pap syū-syung-tū, hāng jī phirī na-g sirī lhē-m-nā ruks-id I and thysight-in sindid, moresonto-be-called worthy apī-g dhang-mi-dhung-mi-mang-jā lhi-s niyē.' Parantu bā-s $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ ki, am. Butfather-by ownservants-to not that, chyang bud chuksin khang-g raiiya hāng 'lai atī ũ chūnī: gãr 'all robetaking-out bring and thathimfrom goodput-on; and $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{r}$ u-g lā-kung lak-chhyap liki-kung paulā chuktanī. In-s hand-on ring and feet-on shoes his put-on. Us-byjām-tung-m-sa hāng khusī syung-m chilī. Khalē-ki hidī ji-g eating-drinking-by and merry making proper-is. Because this my pajyang-d-alī, hang phirī tāng-d-alī; punyart-alī, phirī tais-id-alī.' ũ dead-was, and again. alive-is; helost-was, 80n again found-is. Tab suku dā-g ū tātnē. Then they merry makingbegan.

At lāng-vās pūd sirī u-g rī-jā nīs. Hang jab ū rā-s field-on Thattime-to hiseldersonAndwas. when he came häng chim-g ninam van-lang-ta tō u-s rājō-bājō hāng nāchreachedand house-of near him-by singing-playing thenanddanceiyã-tā. syung-d kalāt Hang dhang-mi-dhung-mi-mang-kung-chi u-s tig Andnoiseheard. him-by making servants-in-from one hū-huim-chū rū-rū-tā mì ki, 'hīdī-g kha matlab anī?' askedcalled-having man that, 'this-of whatmeaning is? u-jā lhē-s u-s ki, Hang 'na-g nanū pirād anī, hāng him-by him-to said'thy And that, brother returned is, and bā-s sakanu syung-s, kha-chār-ki na-g 11-8 ū bud gär thy father-by feast made, because him-by him good and chhyālō tan-s.' Hāng ũ rūrū rā-s hāng ũ chi-kung dī-m ma And safe found.' he anger came andhe house-in to-go no

tachch. Hidī-bēlī-s u-g bā chhyang-pang rã-s hang ū bujāyēs. father out-side andhimwanted. This-for his came entreated. bā-jā javāb dā-g ki, 'ong-chyan, Hang apī-g lhī-s u-s giving saidthat, 'lo, I And him-by own father-to answer hāng ulāng-n kharchī na-g sēvā svung-tātū; jīs ulāng-pā-rī un did;andme-byfrom thy ever so-many years service ulāng-pā-rī bachan tālēg-s. Hang ga-s jī-jā tig na-g $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ thee-by me-to ever word nottransgressed. Andone thy sāthū-mang-tī-bhā lach kang ma dānas ki jĩ apī-g lāsang-g \mathbf{m} id kidthatΙ my-own companions-of-with goat-of smalleven gavestnothidī sirī jō pātarī-mang-tī-bhā ais-khus syung-lhē. Parantu na-g whoprostitutes-of-with this son Butthy merriment should-make. jā-m chyū-chyu-ma-chū hannē tung-am at-nē ga-s rā-s māl-tāl na-g thee-by eating drinking thencame squandered thy property sirī, gan barābar jī-tī-bhā syung-nas.' Hang bā-s u-jā lhi-s. thoualways of-me-with said, 'son, And father-by him-to madest. lai anī. Hidī vājabī atī na-g jō ji-g anī, ninins; hāng This proper allthine is.that what mine is, livedest: and gãr khusi syung-në, kha-chār-ki syung-am suku nīs ki in-s should-make, because andmerry to-make that us-by happy was pa-jhyang-ach, phiri ṭang-d-kalhi; hang punyar-t, nanū bidī na-g jō alive-is; andlost-was, dead-was, againbrother who thistan-ch.' phirī found-is.' again

[No. 49.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

CHAUDĀNGSĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(PATTI CHAUDANGS, ALMORA.)

Jō gāng mī-g dāng-s kun khvē-tā, apī-āp atung gan-nī, tig Who another man-of sake-for pit digs, himself into falls, a riī.
story.

chhandī gār sūdhō mī, jai-g tig song-kung tig barō Udinwhosehutsimple man, one and Certain village-in very hāng nī-nī-nē. \mathbf{U} - \mathbf{g} ās-pās-chī mī. nīnnī, dūmā mā-sāng lā-sāng lived. ${\it His}$ neighbourhood-of were, alsomen, somesheep goatslhāmī-s bakhat tang-ag dā syung-tanë, ս-բ ū u-tī-bhā jō simplicity-by opportunity getting made. hishimhim-with envy who syū-syung-tanē. dhandā Hang tig söng-kung-khar-chī phi-m jyā, made. And endeavour village-in-from to-expel oneday, nī-nī-nai, usī-s lä-säng sīr-chī jā•g usī-g tig u-g mā-sāng them-by goatsjungle-in eating were, themwhen sheep one kakan-tinai hāng hinā syung-g lai-g sī-sē-tanē. khar-chī уū biyar doingdownthrewandthusallkilled. from precipice Atī bichārā sūdhō atī māsāng lāsāng-mang-g bai khū-khō-tā mī-s simple man-by those sheep goats-of skinsTha t took-out poor udīn sahar-kung rāng-m kū-kor-tā. Am-kung-yē u-jā hang ati bai-mang skinscertain to-sell and those city-in carried. Way-inhim-to kab-li-ni, hāng tig janggal-kung phū-kung būb-sē-nī. minch udīn befell and heonenightjungle-in certaincave-in stopped. Bhar-minch-ag yung-kō-tī udīn chōr-sē chōrī-g $m\bar{a}l$ rai-g ra-rā-nī, after Midnight-of certain thief-by theft-of property bringing hàng ati-s atī phū-g murang•pāyē dērā syū-syung-tā. Atī phū-g him-by that cave-on door-on Thatlodging made. cave-of bhitarū usi-g kharbar yang-ag atī $m\bar{i}$ mat chvaung-byū-nī. hāng insidethem-of noise hearing thatman much alarmed-became, and atī bai-mang-g bhitarū, u-s iō u-s rai-s-id, api-s chyam-g skins-of inside, which him-by brought-had, him-by those him-by hiding-of syū-syung-tā. Phu-g lang bhitarū bai-māng-g kharbar-s chōr did. attempt Cave-of inside skins-of noise-by thief ipā-da-dang-si-nī hāng byű-m-s ` lai rupiyā, jō u-s u-tī-bā startled-was and fear-with allrupees, which him-by him-with rai-s-id nī-s, atung-yē hvē-g dī-dī-nī. Sūdhō $m\bar{i}$ -s atī brought-having was, there leaving went. Simple man-by those lā-kung syū-syung-tā hāng chim-jā rupiyā dī-dī-nī. rupees hand-in made andhouse-to went.

Ati māl, jō u-s taing-s-id nī·s, atī pā-m-g bēlī-ch That money, which him-by broughthad, thatmeasuring-of sake-for u-s apī•g parausi-mang-j udī-jā-chin tig khāng hī-hī-chi-nī. him-by his neighbours-in someone-from one wooden-measure asked. Atī parausi-s hidī bāt-g chhēd ki. syung-m bēlī-chī 11-8 this matter-of knowledge That neighbour-by making for that. him-by kha khāng-g būţ-kung lisū lū-lup-tatā. Atī sūdhō-sārī mī-s brought, measure-of bottom-on tar what applied. Thatsimplekhāng vāpas dadā-tā, parantu atī būţ-kung līsū-kung rupiyā pā-g measuring-of measure back rupees gave, but its bottom-in tar-in dūmā rupiyā katpchi-nī. some rupees stuck.

Hidi-s u-g parausi-ja lõbh li-li-ni. U-s sūdhō mī-jā rū-rū-tā. This-by his neighbour-to avarice came.Him-by simple man-to asked 'ga-s hilang rupiyā hanā ki, syung-g ulō-khar-chī tan-s?' U-s 'thee-by so-many Rupees how wherefrom broughtest?' that, doingHim-by apī-g mā-sāng lā-sāng-g lhīs bai-g rang-s-id-s. ${f Ati}$ sūdhō mi-g said thatown sheep goats-of skin-of selling-by. That simple man-of dā-s hāng rupiyā-g lōbh-s u-g parausi-s apī-gai lai mā-sāng Rupees-of greed-by envy-by andhis neighbour-by own sheep sī-sai-tā hāng atī bai-mang-g lā-sāng u-s rang-m kū-kōr-tā, parantu killedand thoseskins goats him-by to-sell carried. but dūmā rupiyā khālī. kha-chār-ki u-s hidī pan-s ta-tan-tā. him-by this bargain-by few in-vain, because rupees got.

rūsũ ra-rām-chū Hidī bāt-kung atī-s sūdhõ mi-gchhandi-kung anger coming-after him-by simple This matter-in man-of hut-in m€ pupita-tā, hāng ati-s phā ka-syung-tātā. Sūdhō mī-s phā-g andhim-by ashes put, made. Simple man-by fire ashes-of hang tig thailī-kung ta-tā-tā hāng atī syung-tā räng-kör-m-g jamā and made onebag-in putandit selling-carrying-of together bēlī-chī dī-dī-nī. Am-kung-yē u-s apī-g thaili am-g lī-chentū ta-tā-tā. went. Way-on him-by own bag road-of sake-for corner-in put, vānam nī-s, hāng tig dhārū-kung, jō dūmā dī-dī-nī. tī tung spring-in, which lit tle to-drink went. and one far was, water 3 U 2 VOL. III, PART I.

Atī bich tig dūsarō mi-s, jō hi-g bhārī atung-ye tā-g man-by, whothere That time otherflour-of loadoneleaving tī thok-sig dī-dī-nī, rā-g u-s tung losi-g bhārī apī-g water to-drinkback him-by went, coming mistaking own load hvē-g phā-g bhārī ang-g kū-kōr-tā hāng dī-dī-nī. Sūdhō mī kang leaving ashes-of load taking brought and went. Simple man also thok-sig ra-rā-nī hāng atī bhārī, jō dūsarō mi-s hvē-g thatbackload, which cameand him-by other man-by leaving dī-s, rī-rai-tā. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{t}$ i bhārī-kung ang-g khan yēk rōyē tan-ni went, taking-up brought.That load-on 80me strange marks *seeing* u-s atī-g phū-phar-tā, hī-s chibind tan-s. Tab ũ atī him-by itopened, flour-by fullfound. Then he that bhārī g api-g chim-ja kū-kōr-tā, jai-bang-kung u-s atī hi-g antāj load-of ovonhome-to brought, where that him-by flour-of weight syung-m bēlī-chī phirī api-g parau-si-g hī-hī-chi-ni. khāng \mathbf{U} -g making for again own neighbour-of measure asked. Histai-g parausi-s hidī ki sūdhō mī-s api-g chhandī-g pha-g neighbour-by thisknowing thatsimple man-by own hut-of ashes-of badlā hī tans-tā, tō u-s kang api-g chhandi yar $\mathbf{m}\widetilde{\mathbf{e}}$ instead found, flour then him-by alsoownhut infire parantu pu-pvi-tā, ū ati-g phā-kang rang ma tarni, hāng udās but heitsapplied, ashes-also **sell** notcould, and afflicted chim-jā lhi-g thok-sig ra-rā-nī, hāng jō-kha-rī u-s syung-s atī-g becoming back whatever house-to came, and him-by didthat-of belī-chī pachhtā barō syung-sō. sake-for much repenting did.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it.—A tale.

In a certain village there lived a very simple man who possessed a hut and some sheep and goats. His neighbours, who envied him, took opportunity of his simplicity, and tried to drive him out of the village. One day when his sheep and goats were grazing in the jungle, they threw them down a precipice and killed them all.

The simple poor man took the hides of the sheep and goats, and went to a city to sell them. On his way night befell him, and he took refuge in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came, bringing some stolen property, and sat down at the entrance of the cave. Hearing the noise, the man within the cave became much alarmed and tried to hide himself in the hides, which he had brought. On hearing the rustling of the hides in the cave, the thief was startled and ran away, leaving all the money he had brought behind him. The simple man took the money in his hand and went home.

In order to measure the money he had brought, he went to one of his neighbours and asked for a wooden measure. In order to ascertain what he had brought, his neighbour

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applied tar to the bottom of the measure. When the simpleton had measured his money, he brought the measure back, and some rupees stuck in the tar at the bottom. The neighbour then became greedy and asked the simple man how and where he had got so many rupees. He said that he had got them by selling the hides of his sheep and goats. Filled with envy and greed his neighbour then killed all his own sheep and goats, and took the hides away to sell them, but in vain, for he only got a few rupees in exchange for them.

He then got angry and set fire to the simple man's hut, and reduced it to ashes. The simpleton put the ashes together in a bag, and went off to sell them. On the way he left his bag somewhere and went a little off to a spring, in order to drink water.

In the meantime another man, who carried a load of flour, left his load there and went to drink water. On returning he made a mistake, left his own load there, and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton came back, he took the load which the other man had left, and went off. Seeing some strange marks on the load, he opened it and found it to be full of flour. He then brought the load to his house, and in order to see how much flour there was, he again asked for his neighbour's measure. When the neighbour had ascertained that the simpleton had got flour in exchange for the ashes of his house, he set fire to his own hut, but was not able to sell the ashes. He then became afflicted and went home, and much regretted what he had done.

BYĀNGSĪ.

This is the dialect spoken in Paṭṭi Byangs, in the north-eastern corner of Almora. The Paṭṭi of Byangs is bounded on the north by Tibet, on the east by Tibet and the Kali River, on the south by the Kali River, and on the west by the lateral chain culminating in Yirgnajung and Paṭṭi Chaudangs. The inhabitants are Bhōṭiās, who occupy seven villages. The revised estimate of the number of speakers is 1,585.

Two specimens and a list of Standard Words and Phrases have been prepared by Babu Gobind Prasad, B.A. They are the only foundation of the notes on Byāngsī grammar which follow.

Byāngsī in most characteristics agrees so closely with Chaudāngsī, that it seems probable that both represent the same dialect. The materials at my disposal are not, however, so trustworthy as to allow us to settle the question with absolute certainty.

Pronunciation.—The phonetical system is, broadly speaking, the same as in Chaudangsi. I shall only mention some few features where the two dialects apparently differ.

'Merry' is gvaisi, gvēsi, gvausi, or gōsi. The word is probably borrowed from the Aryan khushī. There are no other instances of a similar interchange of vowels.

The prefixes ka and pa also have the forms kau, kab, and pab, respectively. Thus $ka-l\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$ and $kab-l\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, became; $kau-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, was; $pa-jy\bar{a}ng-n\bar{\imath}$, had died; $pab-jy\bar{a}ng-t\bar{a}$, killed.

K and g are interchangeable in the suffix k(ai) or g(ai); thus, hva-k, hva-kai, leaving; $d\bar{a}-gai$, giving.

In a similar way, ch is sometimes intercharged with j; thus, $j\bar{\imath}$ pa-chyāng-yē-sō and $j\bar{\imath}$ pa-jyāng-yē-sō, I am killed.

Such interchange between hard and soft consonants seems to show that the soft consonants are pronounced with a strong aspiration. Aspirated soft consonants are not, however, marked in writing.

Parallel forms such as $hv\bar{e}$, ha, and $h\bar{o}$, leave; $g\bar{a}ng$, $g\bar{a}r$, and $g\bar{a}r$, other, and so forth, are due to an inaccurate marking of the sounds. They show how cautious we must be in drawing conclusions from the spelling of the specimens.

Articles.—The numeral tij, one, and the pronouns $un\bar{a}$, $kham\bar{\imath}$, and $g\tilde{a}r$, a certain, are used as an indefinite article; thus, $tig\ m\bar{\imath}$, a man; $kham\bar{\imath}\ b\bar{a}$, a father; $un\bar{a}\ m\bar{\imath}$ -gai, of a man; $g\tilde{a}r\ sang-kh\bar{u}$, in a village. An n is often added to $kham\bar{\imath}$ and $un\bar{a}$ in the list of words; thus, $kham\bar{\imath}n\ cha-m\bar{e}$ -s, by a daughter. Instead of tig we occasionally find $t\bar{\imath}$; thus, $t\bar{\imath}$ - $jy\bar{a}$, a certain day.

Nouns.—Gender is distinguished by using different words or by adding words denoting 'male,' 'female,' respectively. Thus, $l\bar{e}$, bull; rai, cow: $r\bar{a}ng$, horse; $m\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, mare: $ni\cdot kh\bar{i}$, dog; $chhai\cdot ni\cdot kh\bar{i}$ and $m\bar{o}\cdot ni\cdot kh\bar{i}$, bitch.

Number.—The usual plural suffix is mang as in Chaudangsi; thus, chamē-mang, daughters. The list of words also gives forms such as bā tittī, and mat bā, fathers.

Case.—The case suffixes are the same as in Chaudāngsī. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ -s, by the father; $m\bar{\imath}d$ -s \bar{e} , by the younger; $r\bar{\imath}s\bar{u}$ -s \bar{e} , from envy; $b\bar{a}$ -j \bar{a} , to the father; $pa\bar{n}ch\bar{a}$ -j \bar{a} -khar-ch $\bar{\imath}$, from with a shopkeeper; $b\bar{a}$ -g, of a father; $sir\bar{\imath}$ -gai, of the son; chim-j \bar{a} , in

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the house; ti-tu, near, towards; ya-r, on; la-rai, before; kha- $ch\bar{a}$ -rai, why? and so forth.

The case suffixes are sometimes dropped, and sometimes also interchanged. Thus, ji-g $k\bar{a}ku$ $sir\bar{i}$, my uncle's son; $ph\bar{a}$ -gai $jam\bar{a}$ $syungs\bar{o}$, ashes-of together made, gathered the ashes; $g\bar{e}r\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, with the berries; $ap\bar{i}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, to himself; $ap\bar{i}$ -gai $ch\bar{a}$ -sim-sai $jg\bar{i}m$, self-of hiding-by attempt, an attempt to hide himself, and so forth.

Some of the most usual postpositions are $kh\bar{u}$ and $kh\bar{u}$, in; $t\bar{\imath}$, with; $t\bar{\imath}$ - $j\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ and $t\bar{\imath}$ -rakt, together with; $bi\bar{\imath}$, with; $gund\bar{a}$, between (also added to the genitive); $j\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$, on; khar- $ch\bar{\imath}$, from; yar, on, which are usually added to the base. Others are combined with the genitive of the governed word. Such are $bhitar\bar{u}$, inside; $d\bar{a}ng$ -sai, $d\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, for the sake of (also added to the base); $ikh\bar{u}$ and $y\bar{e}kh\bar{u}$, under (also added to the base); khai, instead of; $lar\bar{e}$, before; $n\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, near; nigam, behind; nintam, after, and so on. Jam-tam, against, is added to the instrumental. Thus, $paim\bar{e}sar$ -gai $m\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ -sai jamtam, God's will against.

Adjectives.—Adjectives precede the noun they qualify in the nominative. Thus, bud mi māng, good men; unān yad sirī, a bad boy.

Forms such as tha-id, high; rukhsit, like, etc., contain the suffix id which is also used to form participles. Another common suffix in adjectives is the or tha; thus, va-th, far; chin-th, proper; syāng-tha, old. Compare pa-jyāng-tha, struck.

The particle of comparison is *chyāng*, *chyāng-rī*, or *chyā-rī*; thus, *u-chyāng dōmā bud*, him-from a-little good, better; *u-g pī vō rangsyā-chyāng-rī bung-tha-in*, his brother his sister-from tall-is; *lai-chyāng-rī bud* and *lai-chyā-rī bud*, all from good, best.

Numerals.—The numerals will be found in the list of words. They are mainly the same as in Chaudāngsī. They precede the word they qualify; thus, $n\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$ $sir\bar{\imath}$, two sons.

Pronouns.—The	following	are the	personal	pronouns:

			I	We	Thou	You	He	They
Nom.	•		ji	in, ing .	gan	ganī	vaii, ū.	นรัเ
Agent	•	•	jī-s, jī-sē, jī-sai	in-s .	ga-s, ga-sai.	ganī-s .	u-s; u-sai.	u sī -s
Genitive	•		ji-g, jī-gai .	ing-g .	na-g, na-gai, nī	ganī-g .	<i>u-9</i>	$usar{\imath}$ - g

Other forms occurring in the materials are, $jiy\bar{e}$ and $ji\ lai$, we; $gay\bar{e}$, you; ing-gai, his; $v\bar{o}$, his; $ap\bar{\iota}$ and $ap\bar{\iota}$ -gai, own, and so forth. $Jiy\bar{e}$, we, and $gay\bar{e}$, you, apparently contain the demonstrative pronoun $y\bar{e}$, this; $ji\ lai$, we, literally means 'I all.'

Demonstrative pronouns are ai, aidī, yē, nē, this; ati, vaii, dai, that. Than in than-jyā, to-day, is probably also a demonstrative pronoun.

Interrogative pronouns are khamī, who? unā, who? khai, what? ulāng, how much? ham, how? and probably also hāng, who? They are often used as indefinite pronouns; thus, khamī, some; unā, a certain. In that case, however, rī is often added. Thus, khamī-si-rī, by anybody; khai-rī, anything; kha-rī, some.

Relative pronouns have been borrowed from Aryan forms of speech. Thus, $rupay\hat{a}$ $j\bar{o}$ ra-rai- $t\bar{a}$, the rupees which he had brought; $j\bar{o}$ jal $j\bar{i}$ $chhy\bar{u}$ -kan vaii \bar{i} $d\bar{a}$, which share I-shall-get, that me give. The relative sentence in such cases

sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the word or sentence it qualifies. The Aryan relatives have not, however, become naturalized in the dialect, and we often find relative clauses expressed by means of interrogative pronouns or by juxtaposition. Thus, hāng king khva-tā āpī-āpū atī-khū gang-gan, who pit digs, himself therein falls; u-gai ḍab-jā-tī hāng u-tī rakt rīsū syung-g tā-sō, his neighbours who envied him; nē sirī. atī pātar-syā-mā tī jōrū nā-gai āl-māl yakvak-tī-sō, this son, he (i.e., who) together with harlots wasted your property.

Note also conjunctions such as jab, when; $h\bar{a}ng-h\bar{a}ng$, when—then; ki, that; $h\bar{a}ng$, that, and so on.

Verbs.—Byāngsī conjugation in most particulars agrees with Chaudāngsī. The reduplication is less frequent, but still common enough to be considered a characteristic feature of the dialect; thus, $r\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$, asked; $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, went; si-syung- $t\bar{a}$, did.

There is apparently a similar tendency as in Chaudāngsī to distinguish the second person by adding an n; thus, $lh\bar{\imath}-n\bar{o}$, art, you are; da-nan- $s\bar{o}$, gavest. Similar forms are, however, also used in other persons; thus, ma-da-nan, he did not give; $t\bar{o}k$ - $t\bar{a}$ -tanan, he is grazing; sa-n- $s\bar{o}$, we struck, and so forth. It seems as if the tendency to distinguish the person of the subject in the verb is less pronounced than in Chaudāngsī.

Verb substantive.—The verb substantive is formed from various bases such as $l\bar{\imath}$ or $lh\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, in; dai, and perhaps also $t\bar{a}$, id, an, and $y\bar{e}$. Thus, $lh\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am, we are; $lh\bar{e}-n\bar{o}$, thou art; $l\bar{\imath}$, $lh\bar{\imath}$, in, is; $n\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}-s\bar{o}$, I was; $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$, you were; $n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$ and $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, they were, and so forth. The base $t\bar{a}$ seems to mean 'to remain.' It occurs in forms such as syung-g $t\bar{a}-s\bar{o}$, doing were; sa-kai $t\bar{a}-m\bar{o}$, beating, lit. beating to be. The latter form corresponds to Hind $\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{a}r^at\bar{e}$ $rch^an\bar{a}$ from which it has been translated. Id occurs in participles such as $sy\bar{o}ngk-s-id$ in, sitting is, and an seems to be contained in forms such as $d\bar{\imath}-g-an$, he goes, lit. going he is. It is probably only another form of in, or else it is abbreviated from $an\bar{\imath}$. $Y\bar{e}$ can perhaps be inferred from forms such as $lh\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, I am; $di-y\bar{e}$, I go, and so forth. It seems to be used in the first person singular only.

Finite verb.—The various bases of the verb substantive are freely used in the formation of the tenses of finite verbs.

Present time.—The usual suffix of the present tense is $t\bar{a}$, first person $t\bar{u}$, $t\bar{o}$, second person tan. Thus, $sa \cdot t\bar{u}$, I strike; $sa \cdot tan$, thou strikest; $khva \cdot t\bar{a}$, he digs. The suffix tan of the second person probably contains a pronominal suffix. It can, however, also be composed of ta and in. Compare $tin \cdot tan \cdot an$, they get, where a suffix an, probably abbreviated from $an\bar{i}$, another form of the copula, has been added. Compare $in \cdot an$, they are; $ma \cdot da \cdot nan$, he did not give.

The suffix an or ano is apparently added to the participle ending in g or k in the common present forms ending in gan or kan; thus, $chhy\bar{u}-kan$, I shall get; $d\bar{\iota}-gan\bar{o}$, thou goest; $r\bar{a}-gan$, he comes.

The suffix $y\bar{e}$ is apparently only used in the first person; thus, $lh\bar{i}-y\bar{e}$, I am; $hi\text{-}chi\text{-}y\bar{e}$, I die.

Compound forms are sa-k $t\bar{a}-t\bar{o}$, striking am; di-g $ny\bar{e}$, we are going, we go; di-g $n\bar{i}-l\bar{a}$, you go; $t\bar{o}kt\bar{a}-tanan$, he is grazing; vasat in, he is living; $sy\bar{o}ngksid$ in, he is sitting; $ch\bar{o}k-t\bar{a}ng-n\bar{i}$, again-alive-is, and probably also di-g-pat, they go.

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Past time.—The present tense is often used with the meaning a past; thus, $luk-t\bar{a}$, he said; ma da-nan, he did not give; $j\bar{a}-gan$, they are; $ch\bar{o}k-phang-gan\bar{\imath}$, fled back; ma $tar-n\bar{\imath}$, could not, and probably also forms such as $sy\bar{o}ng-tinan$, they made; $laktap-t\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}$, he applied, and so forth.

The common suffix of the past is s or $s\bar{o}$, $s\bar{u}$, sau; thus, $n\bar{\iota}$ - $s\bar{o}$, was; $r\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}$, came; $t\bar{a}l$ - $s\bar{u}$, I transgressed; ting-sau, he got. Instead of s we sometimes find ch; thus, $t\bar{o}nba$ - $ch\bar{o}$, he arrived.

In the second person we find forms such as sa-n-s, struckest; $di-n-s\bar{o}$, wentest; $da-nan-s\bar{o}$, gavest. Compare however $syungn-s\bar{o}$, I did; $sans\bar{o}$, we struck; $san-ch\bar{o}$, they struck, where the suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, etc., has apparently likewise been added to the suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, etc., has apparently likewise been added to the suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, an. Such forms are accordingly compounds. Compare $di-n\bar{e}-s\bar{o}$, we went; $di-n\bar{i}-s\bar{o}$, you went, and so forth.

The suffix s, $s\bar{o}$, etc., is sometimes also added to the suffix $y\bar{e}$ or to a suffix g, k; thus, di- $y\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}$, I have walked; di-ya- $s\bar{o}$, they went; gvausi- $y\bar{e}$ - $s\bar{o}$, they made merry; sa-k- $s\bar{o}$, I struck; $d\bar{a}$ -ka-s, I gave. The latter kind of forms only occur in the first person. Compare Chaudāngsī.

The s-suffix is sometimes also added to $s\bar{\imath}$ or $t\bar{\imath}$; thus, $y\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{o}$, heard; ya-kvak- $t\bar{\imath}$ - $s\bar{o}$, devoured.

Past tenses are further formed from the reduplicated base, or from the base preceded by one of the prefixes pa, pab, pi, and ka, kab, kau, or $k\bar{o}$, usually by adding one of the suffixes $t\bar{a}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, and $s\bar{o}$. Thus, $pa-p\bar{a}$, measured, having measured; $pi-d\bar{\imath}$, went; $(t\bar{a}ng-d)$ $k-l\bar{\imath}$, (alive) was; kab-tin, was found; ka-tyan (-tinan), (has been) found; $si-sy\bar{u}ng-t\bar{a}$, did; $da-d\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, gave; $ra-rai-t\bar{a}$, brought; $t\bar{\imath}-tan-t\bar{a}$, and $tan-tan-t\bar{a}$, got; $pa-hv\bar{e}-t\bar{a}$, left; $pab-jy\bar{a}ng-t\bar{a}$, killed; $pi-k\bar{o}r-t\bar{a}$, carried; $ka-d\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, gave; $kab-luk-t\bar{a}$, said; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, went; $pa-jy\bar{a}ng-n\bar{\imath}$, was dead; $pi-d\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, went; $ka-jyar-n\bar{\imath}$, was alarmed; $kab-s\bar{e}-n\bar{\imath}$, stopped; $kau-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, and $k\bar{o}-n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, lived; $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$, was; $pa-jy\bar{a}ng-ch\bar{o}$, died; $pi-r\bar{a}-sau$, came; $kab-da\bar{\imath}-s\bar{o}$, gavest. Note also $pa-th\bar{o}k-s\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}$, returned, where $n\bar{\imath}$ is preceded by the same $s\bar{\imath}$ as we have already found in use before $s\bar{o}$. It is probably the suffix of a conjunctive participle, compare $thog-s\bar{\imath}$, returning.

Compound forms are syung-g tā-sō, doing were; rō-kai tā-sō, grazing were; sa-k-tā-tō-niyēs, I was beating; ra-s-id-in, had brought; yāng-s-ig-an, wished, and so forth.

Isolated forms are $h\bar{u}ng$, kissed; $pu-chh\bar{u}-t\bar{\iota}$, divided; $by\bar{o}$ $lh\bar{\iota}-n\bar{e}g\bar{\iota}$, the marriage has taken place.

Future.—The present is commonly used as a future. Thus, $sa-t\bar{o}$, \bar{i} shall strike; $diy\bar{e}$, I shall go; $lh\bar{i}-yai$, I shall be; $sa-tan\bar{i}$, you will strike. The list of words also gives forms such as $sai-n\bar{o}$, thou wilt strike; $sai-l\bar{o}$, he will strike, they will strike; $sai-n\bar{e}$, we will strike. The suffix $n\bar{o}$, $l\bar{o}$, $n\bar{e}$ probably contains the verb substantive $l\bar{i}$ or $n\bar{i}$. The form $luk-v\bar{o}$, I shall say, contains a suffix \bar{o} or $v\bar{o}$.

Imperative.—The base alone is used as an imperative; thus, $j\bar{q}$, eat; $d\bar{\imath}$, go; $d\bar{a}$, give. Common imperative suffixes are $n\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}$, and $y\bar{o}$; thus, $t\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, put; $rai-n\bar{\imath}$, bring; $d\bar{a}-t\bar{\imath}$, give; $k\bar{o}r-y\bar{o}$, take; $g\bar{\imath}-y\bar{o}$, bind; $hvangi-y\bar{o}$, draw. The list of words contains several other forms such as $d\bar{\imath}-g-ay\bar{e}$, $d\bar{\imath}-y\bar{e}$, $d\bar{\imath}-gu-l\bar{a}$, go, and so forth.

There are no instances in the materials available of a negative imperative.

Verbal not ns.—The common suffix used in forming verbal nouns is $m\bar{o}$, or m; thus, $j\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, to eat; $p\bar{a}$ - $m\tilde{o}$ -gai, of the measuring; $l\bar{o}$ -m, to say.

3 **x**

The base alone is often used as a verbal noun, especially in connexion with postposition; thus, $r\bar{a}ng$, to sell; $tung-kh\bar{u}$, drinking-in, in order to drink; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$,
from the going, having gone; thok-s-ig $r\bar{a}-l\tilde{a}ng$, back coming-on, on returning; $pa-l\bar{a}ng-r\bar{e}$, on knowing. Such forms are commonly used as conjunctive or adverbial
participles. An infinitive of purpose can be formed by adding dung or rang; thus, $d\bar{\imath}-dung$, in order to go; $pa-tnan-r\bar{a}ng$, in order to know; syung-am-rang, in order to make.

Participles.—Relative and verbal participles are formed by adding the suffix id or d to the base or to the suffix s of the past. Thus, $t\bar{a}ng-d$ $k-l\bar{\imath}$, alive was; khu-s-id, stolen; rukh-s-it, like; ra-s-id-in, had brought.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding $s\bar{i}$; thus, $th\bar{o}g-s\bar{i}$, returning. The reduplicated base is used in the same way; thus, $pa-p\bar{a}$, having measured. Similarly we also find $pa-h\bar{o}-t\bar{a}$, having left.

Most commonly, however, conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix of the genitive to the verbal noun which is identical with the base; thus, yang-gai, hearing; $h\bar{o}ng-kai$, having taken out; ra-k, bringing. The form ending in $s\bar{s}$ is used as a verbal noun of the past, and the suffix of the genitive is added; thus, $y\bar{a}ng-si-g-an$, having wished was, wished. Compare the remarks under the head of the present time above.

Other conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffix of the ablative $ch\bar{\imath}$ or $ch\bar{\imath}$ to the reduplicated verbal noun ending in m; thus, $n\bar{\imath}-n\bar{\imath}-mi-ch\bar{\imath}$, having been; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$, having gone; $ni-nyar-ma-ch\bar{\imath}$, having been lost, and so forth.

Passive voice.—There is no passive voice. Passivity is indicated by the absence of the case of the agent in the subject. Thus, ji pa-chyāng-tha $n\bar{\imath}$ -yē-sō, I struck was, and so forth.

Causative.—There are no certain instances to show how causatives are formed. We may perhaps compare rai, bring, with $r\bar{a}$, come.

Negative particle.—The negative particle is a prefixed ma; thus, ma dai, I am not; ma da-nan, did not give; ma rā-sō, did not come.

Order of words.—The order of words is the same as in Chaudangsi.

For further details the student is referred to the specimens which follow. The first is a version of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, and the second is the translation of a popular tale. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 535 and if.

[No. 50.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

BYANGSI.

SPECIMEN I.

(PATTI BYANGS, ALMORA.)

PHUKĀVAT SIRĪ-GAI RYĒNYĒ. PRODIGAL SON-OF STORY.

Unā mi-gai nisi sirī Hãng kau-ni-ni. vay-var-chī mid-sē Certain man of twoAnd them-in-from young-by 80n8 were. ΥŌ bā-jā kab-luk-tā. 'ai māl-bathū-khū-kharchī bā. iō ial his father-to said, 0 father, property-in-from which share chhyūkan jī vaiī dā.' Hãng jī u-sai usi-gai gundā \boldsymbol{I} get that give.' Andhim-by them-of me between ing-gai māl-bathū pu-chhyū-tī. Hang mat jyā ma dīvasō. hisproperty divided. And many days notwent, mīd alī-balā sēnd iamā jörü-thum-gai vath rājū pi-dī-sō, hāng young property allcollecting far country went. andyadlan-khữ nī-nī-mi-chī atē apī daisai āl-māl ka-urātā. Hang jab profligacy-in living his all property squandered. Andwhen there daii-sai alībalā kharch kab-syūng-tā, rājū-khữ barō u-sai ati akāl him-by things spentmade, thatcountry-in heavy famine ati kab-lī-nī. Hāng rājū-gai kab-lī-nī, tāng tang ati ati unā and hedestitutebecame. And he that country-of certain arose, ati-sē u-sai āpī khētī mī-gai rakt dī-dī-ma-chī kau-nī-nī, hāng bud with going lived, and him-by himfield man-of goodati kvaksin gar gērā-chī saiphā rau-kor-mū tannalāyatā. Hāng atè khữ and berries-from to-feed sent. And there those barks swine 2. 22. hāng kha-mī-si-rī võ jai saiphā jāgan, gōsigai apī dan pīm-m yangsigan, anyone-by him gladlyhis belly to-fill wished, and ate, u-s luk-tā, Hang jab atī apī-chī pi-rā-sau khai-rī $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ danan. him-by said, self-from cameAnd when he anything notgave. dang-mi-khū-khar-chi ulãng jā-m chyang-ri bhārō-dāsid ʻji-g bā-gai eating than servants-in-from how-many father-of hired Ji rachi-gai hichiyē. api hãng yangbā kōṭab tin-tanan, jī rau-sē die.Ţ. arising own andI hunger-by bread get, more 3 x 2 VOL. III, PART I.

"ai bā ii-sē paimēsar-gai lukvō, hãng u-jā bā-gai tītū diyē " O father, me-sy God-of him-to will-say, andfather-of near gogãr syūngan-sau. Hãng ngō-khữ jī nintam pāp jamtam $\mathbf{n}ar{\mathbf{a}}$ māvā-sai And I have-done. again thy face-in sinwill-from againstanddai. Jiapī bhārō-dāsid dang-mi-khulāyak mā lōm-lukai ${f nar a}$ sirī Мe own hired to-be-called worthy notam. servants-inthy son rukhsit syung-gani." Hãng rachī-gai apī tig-tī-kī ati bā-gai khar-chī make." And hearising own father-of one-with equalfrom kau-nī-nī, gai-usī(i.e., usī-gai) jab ati mat vath bā-sē titu pi-dī. Airē far was, his father-by But when hevery went. rā-sō, hāng khantyā νō jyang-k dī-dī-ma-chī kab-tin-tā, hẵng usī-jā νō he running gone-having pity and him-to came, and him saw. Hãng bānā-tan-tān-tā hūng. sirī-sai u-jā kab-luk-tā, hãng νō embraced andkissed. And son-by him-to said. ' father him michchh-khữ pāp syūngan-sō; jī-sai paimēsar-gai māyā-sai jamtam hãng ${
m n}ar{
m a}$ God-of will-from againstandthysight-in sin have-done; me-by lom-luk lāyak $m\bar{a}$ dai.' nā-gai nintam sirī Airē hãng jī bā-sai to-say worthy notam. thyagain son Butfather-by and I khasē-pusē dang-mī-ja 'lai chyā-rī bud lō-sō. höng-kai apī-gai goodservants-to said, 'all than robe own taking-out Hãng aidī hãng νĩ chū-nī. ŭ lā-khū lak-chhyap rai-ni, andhimthatput-on. Andhishand-on bring, ring gãr gar likhi-khū babch chū-nī. Ing-g jāmō gvaisi-gai syang-m shoeOur and feet-on put. eating andmerry making Kha-chārai, jī pab-jyang-cho, chingkhan. $n\bar{e}$ sirī hãng nintam Why, thismy died, is-meet. 80nand again pī-nyar-nī, nintam kab-tin.' ka-li, tang-d Vō-yar ū gvau-sivē-sō. became, was-lost, again found.' aliveThat-on they merry-made. Vō-var-khar-chī pōd võ sirī. rai-jā kō-nī-nī. Gãr hãng field-in That-on-from hisbig80n was. And then hāng chim-gai nērō tönba-chō hãng rā-sō, u-sē rājo-bājo gãr house-of near reached then andsinging-playing him-by came, and karkar Hãng yang-sisô. dang-mī-khữ-khar-chī tham-m-gai ati-sē tig noiseheard. And servants-in-from dancing-of him-by one rū-rū-tā, 'yē-māng-gai kab-gāl-tā khai kathā na-nī-nī?' Hằng asked, 'these-of calledwhat matter is? And u-jā lū-luk-tā, 'nā n-sē nūnū pī-rā-nī, hẵng ganī bā-sē 'thy said. him-by him-to younger-brother come-is, andthy father-by Hãng da-dā-tā. duklāng ũ rīs \bar{u} pī-rā-nī, hãng Võ chi-khū gave.' And feast ħe. anger went, and he house-in Aidī-dāng-sē rā-sō. di-dung ma võ $b\bar{a}$ pangphan rā-sō kāng came. notTherefore to-go hisfather outcame and

Hãng ٧ò manyāisō. usi api bā-jā iavāb dā-gai lu-luk-tā himentreated. And he hisfather-to answer giving said ki, 'dōbai, jī ailāng in-khar-chī nā-gai sēvā syang-gai tāg-sō; that, 'lo, 1 so-many years-from thy servicedoing am; hãng ii-sē itāvā-sē nā hukm \mathbf{m} a ţāl-su. Hãng ga-sai and me-by ever thy order nottransgressed. Andthee-by ulāng-lītā-rī tig mā-lā-gai jī kāch \mathbf{m} id lē $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{a}$ danan-sõ any-time me one goat-of smallkideven notgavestki jī apī sātū tī jōrū gvēsig syung-tō. Airē nā-gai that I own friends with together merry might-make. Butthysirī. ati vē pātar-syā-mā tī jörű nā-gai āl-māl yakvak-ti-so, this80n, he harlotswith together thy property devoured, vainā rā-sò, vainā ga-sai usī-gai dāng-sē duklang kab-dai-sō.' then then came, thee-by hissake-for feast gavest.' Hãng bā-sē usī-jā luk-tā, 'sirī, rā-jyā-rī gan jī-tī rakt And father-by him-to said. son, thoualways me-with together nī-nī-sō. gär khalītā-rī ji-gai in, dai, sirī, li. nā-gai Υē livedest, whatever andmine is, that. son, thine This. chin-th ki nī-sō ing gösinē-sö man-ranī-sō. Kha-chārē. ai thatshould-make-merry should-be-glad. proper was Why, this nā-gai nūkū hàng pab-jyāng-nī, nintam chök-tāng-nī; ni-nyar-ma-chú, thy younger-brother then died. again revived: having-been-lost, nintam ka-tyan-tinan.' again is-found.'

[No. 51.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. TIBETO-HIMALAYAN GROUP.

BYÄNGSĪ.

SPECIMEN II.

(PATTI BYANGS, ALMORA.)

A POPULAR TALE.

Hāng gāng-mī dāng-sai king khvatā āpī-āpū atī-khū gang-gan.

Who other-man for pit digs himself that-in falls.

Tig rēnyē.

story.tig lāmī mī, u-gai tig chhandi gãr Gãr sang-khū \mathbf{mat} simpleman, him-of onehutvillage-in very and Certain hãng rakt nī-nī-nī, nī-sō. U-gai dabjā-tī u-tī mālā dūmā lived. Him-of neighbour whohim-with together were, cattlesome bud-syangsid-sē tā-sō, u-gai bagat ting-gai u-sai syung-g rīsū hissimplicity-by opportunity was, finding him making envy syong-tinan. sang-khū-khar-chī hōm-rang-g jim Hãng tī-jyā, hãng expelling-of attemptmade.And one-day, and village-in-from jārā-khū rō-kai tā-sō, u-sai usi-gai mālā-māng tig u-gai jungle-in grazing were, him-by them \boldsymbol{a} goatshischar-kang-tinan, ī-khū hāng ainā syūng-gai dai-sirī bhiyar-khar-chī down threw, anddoing precipice-from allpab-chyang-tinan.

killed. $m\bar{i}$ -se ati mālā-gai khō-sō hãng lāmī bai ai bai-māng Ati man-by thosegoats-of skins took-off and That simple theseskins pī-kōr-tā. Am-khū vo manch ka-li-ni, hãng rang-mō sahar khữ ati tig carried. Way-on hisnightbecame, to-sell and he 112 acity Bhar-manch-gai phū-khữ kab-sē-nī. khami nintam jārā-khū unā certain cave-in stopped. Midnight-of after some jungle-in khū**s**id āl-māl ra-k pi-rā-nī, hãng usī-sē atī khūd-mī phū-khữ stolen property bringing came, andhim-by that cave-in thief si-syung-tā. Atimörmpä-khū dāngsū phū-gai bhitarū atī-gai kharbarā lodging made. That care-of entrance-at inside him-of noisemat ka-jyar-nī, hãng mī at u-sai ati bai-mang-gai yang-gai man much alarmed-was, andthat him-by hearing thoseskins-of

i-khū. iō u-sai rasid-in, apī-gai chyāsi-m-sai ivim svong-so. under, which him-by brought-had, self-of hiding-of attemptmade. bai-māng-gai kharbarā yang-gai khūd-mī ka-jyar-nī, Phū-gai bhitarū hãng skins-of Cave-of insidenoise hearing thief alarmed-was. and ivar-mo-dang-se rupayã dais , jõ apī biī ra-rai-tă, atēvai fearing-on-account-of allrupees which him with had-brought, there hva-k chō-g-phāng-ganī. Lāmī mī-sē rupavã ai apī lā-khū syang-sõ leaving ran-away. Simple man-by these rupees his hand-in made hāng chim-jā pi-dī-nī. and house-to

Ai māl jō u-sai tin-sō usai pā-mö-gai dāng-sē u-sai This property which him-by qotitmeasuring of sake-for him-by dab-jā-chī-māng khamī-jā tig khāng thok-so. Ati dab-jā-chī-māng-gai neighbours(-of) some-with a wooden-measure asked. Those neighbours-by ai kathā-gai dāng-sē patanan-rang häng u-sai khai rai-sō. this matter-of sake-for knowing-for that him-by what brought, khāng-gai ikhū-khū galcharē ka-sī-tā. Atī lāmi mī-sē rupayā measure-of bottom-at tar applied. That simple man-by rupees khāng pa-pā ka-dā-tā, hãng ati-gai ikhū-khū gal-charē-sai measured-having measure returned, andthat-of bottom-at tar-by kha-rī rupavã lādab pī-dī-nī. Ai-dang-se usī-gai dab-jā-chī-māng 80me rupees sticking went. This-for his neighbours lõbh pi-rā-ni. U-sai lāmī mī-jā rū-rū-tā, 'gassai ai-lang rupaya greedcame. Him-by 'thee-by so-many simple man-to asked, ham hang u-lo-khar-chi tin-so? U-sē lhō-sō hāng, ' ji-g mālā-māng-gai how and where-from gottest?' Him-by saidthat, 'my goats-of bai-gai rangsid-gai.' Ai lāmī mī-gai rīsū-sē gãr rupayā-gai lōbh-sē skins of selling-by.' This simple man-of envy-by andrupees-of greed-by u-gai dab-jā-chī-māng apī-gai jamā mālā-māng pab-jyāng-tā hãng bai-māng his neighbours own allgoatskilled and thoseskinslai hãng atī rāng pī-kōr-tā, hāng sāchō; kha-chār, u-sai ai pan-sē all those to-sell carried, and in-vain, why, him-by this bargain-by then chithai rupavā tī-tan-tā. Ai kathā-sai rūsū rā-gai u-sai mī-gai got. This matter-by anger coming him-by simple man-of rupees chhandi-khū mē lak-tap-ti-tā, hāng ati-gai phā ka-syūng-ti-tā.

hut-in fire applied, and that-of ashes made.

thailī-khữ Lāmī mī-sē phā-gai jamā syung-so hang tā-sō. hẳng tig Simple man-by a hes together made and one bag-in put,and rang-mö-khū pī-dī-sō. thailī sar-gai Ām-khū atī-sai tam-yar น-รคi apī corner-on itselling-in bag road-of went. Way-in him-by own tung-khū pī-dī-nī. pā-hvē-tā hāng tig dhārū-gai, tī jō dūmā tamō nī-sō, and one spring-of, which little water drinking-in went. far left was,

Ai-gundā gãr tig milai-hāng ătū-gai bhārī at-khữ pā-hō-tā tĩ This-between one other alsoflour-of loadthere leaving water man tung-khữ di-di-ni. Thok-si-g ră-lẫng u-sai lō-si-gai āpī bhārī hva-kai drinking-in went. Returning coming-on him-by mistaking own loadleaving phã-gai bhārī āng-sō hāng āpī pī-dī-sō. lagai pa-thok-si-ni hang Lāmi mī took-up ashes-of loadand self went. Simple man alsoreturned and u-sai ati bhārī gäŗ hva-k jai dī-sō miāng-k kor-so. Ati him-by that load which other man leaving taking-up That wentcarried. bhārī-khū domā ēkvarō sai ti-lang ati-sai usai phang-sō ātō-saī load-on somestrange marks seeing-on him-by thatopened flour-by chēbind kau-nī-nī. Hãng u-sai ati bhārī lai āpì chim-jā pī-kor-tā. full was. Then him-by that loadallhis house-to carried. Hāng u-sai ati ātō-gai chyarm chhakā syung-m-rang nintam api Then him-by thatflour-of weight making-for knowledge again hisdab-jā-chi-māng-gai khãng thō-sō. Usī-gai dab-jā-chī-māng ainā pa-lang-re neighbours-of measureasked. Hisneighbours thusknowing-on lāmī mī-sē āpī chhandi-gai phā-gai ātō hãng khai ting-sau usi-ri simple man-by ownhut-of they ashes-of instead flour then gotāpi chhandī-khū $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{ar{e}}$ laktap-tā, airē u-gai atī phā-gai rang ma tarni: own hut-in fire applied, but that itsashes sellnot could; hẵng ālā-chi-ma-chū chim-jā hãng thögsi pī-rā-nī, jō and hopeless-becoming house-to came, and back which ali-balā u-sai syang-sō usī-gai dang-sai matai pachhta-lichcho. things him-by didthem-of sake-for muchrepented.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Whosoever digs a pit for another, he himself falls into it. A story.

In a certain village there lived a simpleton who possessed a hut and some cattle. His neighbour envied him, and sought an opportunity of expelling him through his simplicity out of the village.

One day his goats were grazing in the jungle, and his neighbour drove them over a precipice and thus killed them. The poor man took the skins of the goats and went to town to sell them. Night befell him on the way, and he put up in a cave in the jungle. After midnight a thief came with some stolen property and took up his quarters at the entrance of the cave. When the man within the cave heard the noise, he was much alarmed and tried to hide himself under the skins he had brought. Hearing the rustling of the skins within the cave the thief was alarmed, and fled leaving all the money he had brought with him. The poor man took possession of the money and went home.

He now asked some of his neighbours for a wooden measure, in order to measure the property he had got. In order to know what he had brought, the neighbours put tar at the bottom of the wooden measure. Having measured the money, the poor man returned the measure, and some coins stuck in the tar at the bottom. Therefore his neighbours-

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became greedy and asked him how and where he had got the money. He said that he had got it by selling the skins of his goats. From envy and greediness his neighbours then killed their own goats, and took the skins off to sell them. But in vain, for they only got some few rupees in exchange for them. They then got angry and set fire to the poor man's hut and reduced it to ashes. The poor man gathered the ashes in a bag and went off to sell them. On the way he left his bag on the road-side and went off to drink water at a well, a little way off. In the meantime another man left a load of flour there and went to drink water. On returning he by mistake missed his own load and went off with the load of ashes. When the simpleton returned, he took the load which the other man had left. He saw some strange marks on it, and on opening it, he found that it was full of flour. He then brought the load home, and again asked for his neighbours' measure in order to ascertain the weight of the flour. When his neighbours understood that he had got flour in return for the ashes of his hut, they set fire to their own huts, but could not sell the ashes. They then returned home and much regretted what they had done.

3 Y

JANGGALT.

Janggali literally means jungle-language. It has been reported as the dialect spoken by the wild Banmanush, i.e., wood-men, who inhabit the forests of Chhipula in Askot Malla. The number of speakers was estimated for this Survey at 200.

It has been found impossible to prepare specimens of the dialect of these wild people. A list of Standard Words and Phrases has, however, been forwarded from the district, and it will be reproduced on pp. 535 and ff. It is too corrupt to allow us to classify the dialect with certainty. On the other hand, it clearly shows that the Janggali of Askot is a Tibeto-Burman form of speech.

It is impossible to give a sketch of Janggali declension and conjugation. In the declension of nouns there are several Aryan forms, and the dialect is on the whole of a mixed character. The pronouns $n\bar{a}$, I; $n\tilde{a}g$, thou, must probably be compared with Mägari $ng\bar{a}$, I; nang, thou, etc. It is possible that the dialect is more closely connected with the Tibeto-Burman dialects of Nepal, than with those spoken in Almora. Considering the corrupt state of our materials, I have, however, thought it safest to print the Janggali list after the other Almora lists, and to leave open the question of the closer relationship of the dialect.

This much it seems allowed to state that it has few, if any, characteristics in common with the other Almora dialects.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES IN THE WESTERN SUB-GROUP OF PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

VOL. III, PART I.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE WESTERN

Engl	ish.			Kani	iw*rī (Bashah	r).			Kar	āshī.			Man	chāți	(Lahul).	
1. One .	•	•	•	Id .	•	•	•	•	Idh		•	•	•	Idi		•	•	
2. Two .	•	•	•	Nish	•	•		•	Nyish		•	•		Juț	•	•	•	•
3. Three.	•	•		Shum		•		•	Shum		•	•	•	Shumu		•		•
4. Four .		•		Ρü	•			•	Pu			•	•	Pi.	•	•	•	•
5. Five .	•		•	Ngā	•	•			Nga	•	•	•		Ngā	•	•		•
6. Six .			•	Ţug	•	•	•	•	<u>Ts</u> o, cho	•	•		•	T ^a rui, tro	ii	•	•	•
7. Seven	•	•	•	Stish; t	ish	•	•	•	Saot			•	•	Nyizhi	•	•	•	•
8. Eight	•	•	•	Rai		•	•	•	A ṭh	•		•	•	Re	•	•		
9. Nine .	•	•	•	Zgúi; g	úi		•	•	Nou	•		•	•	Kā.			•	•
10. Ten .	•	•	•	Sai	•	•	•	•	Das	•		•		Sā.	•	•	•	•
ll. Twenty	•	•	•	Nízzā	•	•	•	•	Nyiza	•	•	•	•	Nyiza	•	•	•	•
12. Fifty	•	•	•	Nish níz	zā-ū	sai	•	•	uja da	ja da	as; ny ayish l	ishny biya	iza uja	Nyi-nyiz	o-sā	•	•	•
l3. Hundreā	•	•	•	Ngā níz	zā ; r	ā	•	•	das. Shau; n	ga b	iya	•	•	Rā	•	•	•	•
14. I .	•	•	•	Gª	•		•	•	Gu.			•	•	Ge.	•	•	•	•
15. Of me	٠	•	•	Ang	•	•	•	•	Ākā		•	•	•	Giu, gye	u	•		
16. Mine [<u>[</u> *	•	•	Ang	•	•	•	•	Ākā	•	•	•	•	Giu, gye	u	•		
17. We	•	•	•	$\int \frac{\sinh x}{\sin (ex)}$	(incl. cl. pli	dual;	; nir	ıg-	Ni; ni n	yisn	ıis	•	•	Ngye-re	•	•	•	•
18. Of us		•	•	(incl. Nishi-u	ptur.) kásh	ang-u,	etc.	•	Ni-ka		•			Ngye-tu	•		•	
19. Our .	•	•	•	Nishī-u	, etc.	•	•	•	Ni-ka	•		•	•	Ngye-tu		•	•	
20. Thou .	•	•	•	Ka; ki	(re s]	pec tf ul])	•	Ko		•	•	•	Kā.	•	•	•	
21. Of thee	•	•	•	Ka-n;	ki-n	•		•	Kan-ka	•	•	•		Kanu	•	•		
22. Thine	•	•	•	Ka-n;	ki-n	•	•	•	Kan-ka	•	•	•		Kanu	•		•	
23. You ·	•	•	•	Kíshī (plure	(du	al);	ki	nấn	Ki	•	•	•		Kye-re			•	
24. Of you	٠	•	•	Kíshī-u		aấn-u	•	•	Kin-ka	•	•	•		Kye-tu		•	•	
25. Your .	•	•		. Kíshi-t	ı; kir	nấn-u	•		Kin-ka	•	•			Kye-tu		•		

Chamba	Lihuļi,		Bunán (Lahul).
Īttī, i		•	Ti-ki
Jur .		•	Nyis-king
Shum .		•	Sumi
Pi .	•	•	Pi.'
Ngā .		•	Ngaï
Trūi .		•	Trui
Nhi '	•	•	Nyizhi
Rhē .		•	Gyeï
Kū .		•	Gu
Sā .		•	Chuï
Nīzz .	• •	•	Nyiza
:			Nyis-saï chuï
Rā .	•	•	Gya
Gē .		•	Gyi, ing-gi
Geū, geỗ		•	Gyi-i
Geū, geỗ			Gyi-i
Yer .			Hingzhi
Yedu .			Hing-zhii
Yedu .		•	Hing-zhii
Kü ,			Han
Kã, kēnő		•	Han-gyi
Kã, kēnỗ			Han-gyi
Ker .		•	Han-zhi
Kedu .			Han-zhii
Kedu .		•	Han-zhii

Rangkas (Almo	ora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Tākā		Tâků
Nisi		Nisū
Sum .		Sum
Pi .	• •	Pi
Nai ;	•	Ngaii
Ţuk	• .	Tuku
Nhisi		Nisū
Jyad		Jyādū
Gvi	• .	Gvi
Chi		Chī
Tānsa	• .	Na-sā
Nînsā chî	• •	Ngã-sã
Nanas	• •	Rā
Ji		Jī
Ji-g	٠.	Jī-gu
Ji-g .	•	Ji-gu
Nung		Ji
Nung-g .	• .	Ing-gō
Nung-g .	•	Ing-gō
Ga		Gai
Gū-g	•	Gō-gū
Gū-g .	•	Gō-gū
Gani .		Gaini
Go-g	• •	Gainī-gū
Gō-g .	• .	Gainī-gū
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GROUP OF PRONOMINALIZED HIMALAYAN LANGUAGES.

Char	ud ā ng	sī (Aln	nora).		Ву	āngsī	(Almor	ra).		Janggalī (Almora). English.
Tig	•	•	•	•	Tig	•	٠	٠		Да 1. One.
Nis	•	•		•	Nisī	•	•	•		Ni 2. Two.
Sum	•	•	•	•	Sum	•	•			Sug 3. Three.
Pi	•	•	•	•	Pī		•	•		Pā-ri 4. Four.
Ngaii	•		•		Ngē.	•		•		Pa-ngā 5. Five.
Ţuk		•		•	Ţuk			•	•	Turkū 6. Six.
Nis	•		•	•	Nīs	•		•	•	Sātt 7. Seven.
Jyad	•	•	•	•	Jēḍ				•	Att 8. Eight.
G v ī	•		•	•	Gvi		•	•	•	$Nav\tilde{a}$ 9. Nine.
Chī			•		Chī	•	•		•	$\mathrm{Dah}\widetilde{\widetilde{\mathrm{a}}}$ 10. Ten.
Nasa	•		•		Nasā	•	•	•	•	Bissā 11. Twenty.
Ngā-sā		•	•	•	Ngā-sā	•		•	•	Păchchāhā 12. Fifty.
Saii	•	•			Saii	•	•	•		Hā
 J ī .	•	•	•		Ji .	•	•	•	•	Nā 14. I.
Ji-g		•	•		Jīg	•	•		•	Nā khānī, and khaiye . 15. Of me.
Ji-g	•	•	•		Ji-g		•	•		Vai na hi 16. Mine.
In	•	•		•	Ing		•	•	•	Nā khānī, muddākhā 17. We.
In-g	•	•	•		Ing-g	•	•	•		Nā khānī, īnt khaiyē . 18. Of us.
in-g	•	•			Ing-g			•		No 19. Our.
Gan	•	•	•		Gan	•				Nãg 20. Thou.
Na-g	•	•	•		Na-g		•		•	Nãg khāni 21. Of thee.
Na-g	•	•	•		Na-g	•	•	•	•	Năng
Ganī	•	, •	•	•	Gani	•				Nãg 23. You.
Gani-g	, ·		•		Gani-g					Nã khānī pitā 24. Of you.
Gani-g	.	•			Gani-g			•		Nã khānī 25. Your.

Engli	sh.				Kani	āw ^a rī.				Kanā	shī.			Mane	hāţī (I	ahul)).	
2 6. Не .	•	•	-	Do				D)o, nu .			•	Da			,	•	-
27. Of him		•	•	Dó-u				E)u-ka	•	•		Do-	u .		,		
28. His .	,	•	•	Dó-u	•			I)u-ka	•	•		Do-	·u.	•		•	
29. They .	•	•	•	$egin{array}{l} ext{D\'osung} \ ext{($plura$)} \end{array}$	(di	ual);	dó-gon	I	Ou-ga	•			Do	-re	•	•	•	•
30. Of them	•			Dősung-		dó-gon-u		I	Du-gan-k	a	•		Do	-ta	•	•	•	
31. Their		•	•	Dōsung-	u;	dó-gon-r	ι .	.]	Du-gan-k	ca,	•		Do	- t u	•	•	•	
32. Hand	,	•		Gud		•	•	.	Guḍ	•	•		Gu	ŗ	•	•	•	
33. Foot .	•	•	•	Bang	•	•	•	.	Thula (t	high)	; pile	(shin	Ko	n <u>dz</u> a	•	•	•	
34. Nose .	•	•	•	Tákus		•	•	•	Ta.	•	•		N	ā.	•	•	•	
35. Eye .		•	•	Mig		•		•	Mig	•	•	•	. Ţi	rā.	•	• ,	•	•
36. Mouth		•	•	Khang	•	•	•	•	Kakang	g	•	•	. Ā	•	•	•	•	•
37. Tooth	•	•		Gar	•	•			Gar		•	•	· Te	hoā	•	•	•	
38. Ear .	•	•	•	Kánang			•		Rhod	•	•		. R	eţā	•	•	•	•
39. Hair .			,	Krā	•	•			Kra			•	. K	rā	•	•	•	•
4 0. Head .	•	•		Bal	•	•	•	•	Bal			•	. Pi	ındza	•	•	•	•
41. Tongue	•	•		• Lē	•	•	•		Le .	•	•	•	. L	Э	•	•	•	•
42. Belly	•	•		· Péțing	•				Shon		•	•	. K	\log	•	•	•	•
43. Back .	•	•		· Píshti	ıg	•	•		Pishţīn	3		•	. Т	hākh ā	•	•	•	•
44. Iron .	•	•		Ron		•	•	•	Ron		•	•	. N	ilām		•	•	•
45. Gold .	•	•		Zang		•		•	Zāngg	•	•	•	. 2	ang		•	•	•
46. Silver	•	•		• Mal	•	•	•	•	Māl	•		•	. 1	Iul '	•	•	•	•
47. Father	•	•		· Bốā;	bốw	ā; bốbā	•		Bā	•	•	•		₿ã.	•		j.	•
48. Mother		•		. Ámā	•				Yā.	•	•	•		7ā	•	•		•
49. Brother	•	•		. Átē (elder	r); baíā	(y oung	er)	Bāu (you:	(eld iger.)	e r) ;	bhoiy	ts]	Kākā (elder)	; 110 2	(you	nger)
50. Sister	•	•		· Dau	inger	(elder) ;	ri	ıgs		•		•		Rhing	•	•	•	•
51. Man .		•	•	Mi		•	•		Marsh	ang	•	•		Mī	•	•		
52. Woman	ı .	ı	•	. Tsésr	ni		•	•	Bețri		•	•		Me- <u>ts</u> i-	mi		•	•

C	hamba	Lāhu	 ļi,			Bunán	(Lahul).	
Du	• ,	•	•	•	Tal .	• •	•	•	
Dō, ēnō		• •			Tal-gyi	, tai	•	•	
Dō, ēnō	• •				Ta-i, . ta	al-gyi	•	•	
Dor			•	•	Tal-zhi	, tal-ji	i (tal-	<u>ts</u> or	е) .
Dodu	• •		•	•	Tal-zhi	-i .	• •		
Dodu	• •		•	•	Tal-zhi	i; the	-zhi-i		
; - Guṛ	• •	• •	•	•	Lag.	• •	•	`	•
Kunz	• •			•	Bang.	•	• •	•	
Īã	• •	. ,	•	•	Gyum	•	•		•
Ţir .			•	•	Mig .	• •	•	•	,
A .		• s	•	•	·Ag ،	• •	•	• -	
- <u>Ts</u> hu ā	• •		•	•	Soa	••	• •	•	•
Riŗ	• •	• •	•		.Rē <u>ts</u> i.		• •	•	•
Krā .	• ,	•	•	.	·Kra	• •		•	•
Punz	•	• •	•		Pusha		••	•	•
Lhē	•	•	•	•	·Le	•	• •	•	•
Khog, kh	ıop		•	•	Dan .	• •	• •	•	•
Thākh	•	•	•	•	-Gyab	• •	• •		•
Nīlām .	•	•	•		Chaks	• •	•	•	•
	••••	•			Ser				
	••••	•			Mal .	• •	• •	c.	
Bā .	•	• `	•		Awa	•	• •	•	a
Yā.		•	•		Ama	• •	•	•	
Kag (elder	r) ; n	uā (ya	u nger)	$egin{aligned} ext{A-chho} \ (young) \end{aligned}$. (e) er).	lde r) ;	;	bed
Rhť .		•	•		Shring	•	•	•	
Gāhnū, mī	Ĭ	•	•	•	Mi	•	•	•	
Mēzmī .		•	•	•	Las-mi	•	ı		•

Rangkas	(Almora	.).	١	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Hvē; u-s	•	•	•	Vō
Hvēdu-g	•	•	•	Ú-gū
Hvēdu-g		•	•	Ū-gū
Usī .	•	•	•	Usī
Usī-kī .	•		•	Usī-g; usī-gū
Hvē-chā-g	•	•	•	Usī-g; usi-gū
Lā •	•	•	•	Lā
Likē •	•	•	•	Laki
Him •	•	•	•	Nim • . • . • .
Mi .	•	•	•	Mẽ
Ā	•	•	•	Ā
Śu .	•	•	•	.Sō
Rach .	•	•	•	Rachō
Puchham	•	•	•	Chham
Pusē .	•	•	•	Pisyā
Jibē .	•	•	٠	Jivai
Pan .	•	•	•	Dan
Lung .	•	•	•	Lungg
Chyang	•	•		Nijang
Jà .	•	•		Jang
Mul .	•	•		Mul
Bā .	•	•	•	Ва
Min	•	•	•	Minā
Pi-khan .	•	•		Pē
Rangsyā Mī	• .	•	•	
Bachhai	• ,	•	٠	
W. P. L.	•	•	•	Buchāk chamē

Chaudāngsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggalī (Almora).	English.
Atī;ū	Vaii	Nã	26. He.
U-g	U-g	Nă khānī māl pitā	27. Of him.
U-g · · · ·	U-g	Aii khāni pitā	28. His.
Usi · · · ·	Ū, usi	Pakhō	29. They.
Usī-g • • •	Usī-g	Ai pitā bahū pitā	30. Of them.
Usi-g · · · ·	Usī-g · · ·	Guḍhō pitā	31. Their.
Lā	Lā	Hakai	32. Hand.
Laki • • •	Liki	Bhā	33. Foot.
Him	Nim · · · ·	Sinà	34. Nose.
Mě	Mēg · · · •	Mikai	35. Eye.
Humë • · · •	Ā	Păg	36. Month.
Sū	Sī	. Svā	37. Tooth.
Rach	Rach	Tunā	38. Ear.
Chham	Chham	. Sāu	39. Hair.
Pisyā	· Pisyā · · ·	. Jūrā ·	40. Head.
Jabli	. Jablē	. Jibaurau	41. Tongue.
Dan	. Dan	. Gūdang	. 42. Belly.
Lung	Lung	Puṭṭhī	. 43. Back.
Najāng	. Najāg	. Lōhā	. 44. Iron.
Jāng	. Jang	. Sūnā	45. Gold.
Mul	. Mul	Ruppo	. 46. Silver.
Bā · · ·	. Bā	. Bâbā	. 47. Father.
Mīnā . · · ·	, Nā	. Īyyā	. 48. Mother.
Pi	. Pi	Bhaūvā	. 49. Brother.
Rangsyā	. Rangsyā	. Bhainyā	. 50. Sister.
Mi ·	. Mi	. Pā mansābā .	. 51. Man.
Minā-sirī	. Minang siri	. Hvē-kā mitō	. 52. Woman.

Engl	ish.			Kanāw [*] rī (Bashahr).		Kan	āshī.		Mānchāţī (Lahul).
53. Wife .		•	•	Gốnē; nār		Chhets	•		Me-tsa
54. Child	•		•	Chang • •	$\cdot \cdot $	Chhanga.	• .		Kaţu
55. Son .		•	•	Chang; dekrāts chang		Chho	•		Υδ
56. Daughter		•		Chímed •		Chīme	•		Жео
57. Slave	•	•	•	Bándo · · ·		Thint .	•		
58. Cultivator	•	•	•	Zámindār . • •		Zemindar	•		Zamindar
59. Shepherd	•	•	•	Pálas	-	Pālang . ,	• .		Poāla
60. God .	•	•	•	Parmésharas ; Bagán	•	Bhagwan .	• .		Maharāj, parmesīr
61. Devil.	•	•	•	Shaitấn		Bhutang	•		Dud
62. Sun .	•	•	•	Yunék'	•	Dupe	•		Eke
63. Moon	•	•	•	Golsáng	•	Jōshta .	•	• . •	Latsang
64. Star	•	•		Kar; skar		Kāraga	. •	•	Kar
65. Fire .		•	•	Mē	-	Mī	• .	•	Ме
66. Water	٠		,	. Ti		Ti		3	Ti
67. House	•	•		Khim	٠	Kim .	•	•	Chum
68. Horse	•	•		Rang	•	Rhāng .	•	•	Rang
69. Cow .	•	•		Lang	•	Huj .	•	•	Goana
70. Dog .	•	•		Khúi	•	Kui .	. •	•	Khuï
71. Cat .	•	•		Píshi · · ·	•	Burāri .	•	•	Bhil
72. Cock .	•	•		. Kúkras; khyō kúkrī	•	Kukurang	, •	•	. Kuk ^u ri
73. Duck	•	•		Tī-aíras	•	Ābi	5	•	. Lhangpa
74. Ass .	•	•		Pots	•	Gadha .	•	•	Kārā
75. Camel	•	•		. Unt	•	Uņţ .	•	•	Uth
76. Bird .	•	•		. Pyā ; pyāts (a small bir	rd)	Tsarits .	€.	•	P ^r ya
77. Go •	•	•		Bíū: bĩch; bĩny	•	Bungt .	•	•	· Ila
78. Eat .	•	•		Zã ; zách ; zãny .	•	Zau .	• .	•	. Za-u
79. Sit .	•	•		Tosh; tōshiny; tōshi tōshiny (respectful plus	(ch; ral)	Nāsh .	, •	•	. To

Chamba Lāhuļī.	Bunán (Lahul).
.Mez	. Beyan-mo (byan-mo)
	<u>Tsits</u> i
.Υσ	Bu-tsha
Milyo	. Tsemed
·	Goyal
	Rig-dang zai-pa
*14***	Roag-tsi
	Kon-chog
* ****	Dud
Yegi	Nyi- <u>ts</u> i
Lazā	La
Karh	Kar-ma
	Ме
Ti	Soti
Church	Kyum
Rhã	Shrangs
Rāhd	Hambu
Khūi	Khyu
Bhīr	Bi-la
Kugā	Kukri
	Ngang-pa
	Kāra
	Uthu
	Pea, pya .
	El-a
533 °	Za
Bhraĩ	Zhora
	i

Ra	ngkas	(Almor	·a).		Dā:	rmiyā	(Almor	·a).	
Bachhai	1	•			Bānd	•		•	•
Śyan-ch:	an				Sēnchan	•	•		•
Śēri				•	Sirī	•		•	•
Chimi	•	•	•	•	Chamē	•	•	•	•
Pangr		•	•	•	Phāngm	ī	•	•	•
Rai-sun	•	•	•		Vō-lan	•	•	•	•
Gvāl	•	•	•	•	Anvāl	•	•	•	
Pramaicl	hhur	•	•		Paimēsar	.	•	•	•
Bhūt-pic	hās	•	•		Sīnū	•	•		
Surj; nī		•	•		Nī	•	•	•	•
Lhā	• .	•	•	•	Lhā	•	• ,	•	•
Tār	•	•	•	•	Lakar	•	• .	•	
Mē	• •	•	•		Mē	•	•	•	•
Ti.	•		•	•	Ti .	•	• ,	•	•
Chyam	· .	•		•	Chim		•	•	•
Rhã	•	•			Rāng	•	•		
Rai	•	•			Bainā	• .	•		•
Khvī	•	•	•		Khi	•	•		•
Bilā	•	•			Bilā	•	٠.		
Sichar		•	•		Pyā	•	• ,		•
Badig	•	•	•	•	Ngā-pyā		•	•	• 1
Gadā,	• .	•	•	•	Lungjō	•		•	•
Hữţ		•	•		Ūţū	•		•	•
Pyā	•	•	•		Si-pyā	•	•	•	-
Diś; dī;	diśī ;	diśēn	; dādi		Dē; dī-sī	; d i- s	i-na-lā	,	•
Jām; jā	; jaśi	; jasan	ı; jaśi	lā	Jā; jā-sī;	jā-sī-	-na-lā		•
Chilmi; chilaisa W. P.	in; ch	ilesali	chilēs i; chi	i; lī.	Syōngksi syōngks	m; in-(al	вуд ā).	ngksī	;

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Chaudāngsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggalī (Almora).	English,
Bãd	Jamin	Mã	53. W ife.
Bālu-sēnd	Sēnal	. Paigārō	54. Child.
Sirī	Sui	. Hvē-kā payō	55. Son.
Cha-mē	Chamē	. Hvê tarð	56. Daughter.
Dhang-mi	ра̂ng-mi	. Hvē gulāmā hinānī	57. Slave.
Jimdār	Jimdār	. Khēti-la ū ḍā	58. Cultivator.
Anvāļ	Aṇvâl	. Guālyā	59. Shepherd.
Parmēsarai	Parmaisar	. Bhagvān	60. God.
Sinā	Sinā	. Pitaudī	61. Devil.
Ni	Nī	. Diākhā	62. Snn.
Lhā	Lhā	. Pipar kōsi	63. Щооп.
Lhā-kar , ., .	Karmā	Tārā	64. Star.
Mai	Mē	. Mai	ნ. Fire.
Ti	Tī	. Ti	06. Water.
Chim	Chim	N (sic)	67. House.
Rang	Rang	. Ghōryā	68. Horse.
Sirai	Rai	. Pīgo	69. Cow.
Nau-khvì	Nikhi	. Kui	70. Pog
Bilā	Bila	. Bīrālī	71. Cat.
Napyā	Nīpai	. Bvā	72. Cock.
Ngangbā	Ngāngbā	. Aulyā	73. Duck.
Bongeh	Bōngchai	. Gadahā	74. Ass.
Ūţ	Ŭţ	. Ūţā	75. Camel.
Chipach	Chipach	. Bbā	76. Bird.
Dē; dē-ganē; dē-ganē-lā; deyē.	Dī; digayē; dīgulā; dīy	Raigvāī	77. Go.
Jā; jāgnē; jāgnalā; jāgya	Jā; jāgayē; jāgulā .	. Jāīr	78. Eat.
Syökasim ; syögasin ; syögsaye ; syögsinala.	Syöngksin; syöngksiy syöngksiglā.	ē ; Svai	79. Sit.

English.		Kanāw [*] rī (Bashahr).	Kanāsbī.	Manchāṭī (Lahul).		
80. Come .	•	Járā;-jach; jany .	. Zhar	Ātā		
81. Beat .	•	Tong; tongch; tongny	. Tou	Teng-u		
82. Stand .	•	Dếnyū ; đếních ; đếniny	. Kharas ach	Atsu		
83. Die	•	Shī; shīch; shīny .	. Shīg	Si-u		
84. Give .	•	Ran; ranch; rany; kyō kōch; kēny.	; Kāz-mor; kāz-ratang; rāṭ.	Ră-u		
85. Run .	•	Tűrat; tűrách; tűrány	Thoratang	Dro-rau		
86. Up	•	Tốā	Rigin	To-ring ,		
87. Near .	•	Nírangs	Nerang	<u>Ts</u> am-be		
88. Down .	•	Ῡ́σ-ā ·	Yen; yo	Yong.		
89. Far	•	Vark	Dur	Oï		
90. Before .	•	Oms; ómskō	. Āgrang; mandris	Tuï, kachang		
91. Behind .	•	Nyums; nyúms-kō .	Hipich	Thal-e		
92. Who •	•	Hat · · · ·	. Hāte	A-ri		
93. What .	•	Tet · · · · ·	Chhuge	Chhi		
94. Why .	•	Tū · · ·	Kwe	Chha-ring		
95. And ,	•	Ai	Hed	Uï, e		
96. But	•	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		Shu-che-la		
97. If	•	the verb, etc.).	Akhar	Kita, saita		
98. Yes	•		1	Hvoi		
99. No	•			Ma shut'		
00. Alas .				Hai hai		
01. A father .	•			I bā · · ·		
02. Of a father	•			I bā-u		
03. To a father 04. From a father	•	Bốbấ-ň		I bā-bi		
04. From a father 05. Two fathers		Bőbā dagts; bō-bā-ū dagts		I bā-u dor- <u>ts</u> i		
	•	n'		Juṭ bā		
06. Fathers .	• •	Bohān	Bā-ga	Bā-a-re		

Chamba Lāh	uļī.	1	Bunán (Lahul).	
Ābî	•	•	Ra	
Tezi		•	Khye-ra · · ·	
Khayā shubi .	•	•	Shan-shi .	1
Sī	•	•	Shi-chi	
Raṇḍi	•		Dа-и	
Drō-raṇḍī	•	•	Grel-a	
Tori	•	•	Yo-rog, yartog	
$T_{ ext{Sambi}}$	•		Ka-chang	
			Meong	
Ohētār	•	•	Wa-i	
Tāri	•	•	Du-chi-mang	
Thalãr .	•		Kho-chi-mang	
Ārī .	•		Su	
Chhi .	•		Kha	
Chhārī .	•		Kha-lak'	,
	•		-dang, -e	,
Azla .	•		Yen-nang	
••••			-nang · · ·	
Ōē .			. Wa	•
Ma .	• •		. Men	•
•1**	••		Hai hai	•
Bā .			, Awa ti-ki • •	•
Bãō .			. Awa ti-ki zi	•
Bābi .			. Awa ti-ki rog . •	
Bāō do <u>ts</u> .			. Awa ti-kog-chi	•
Jur bā .			Nyis-pi awa	
••••	••		Awa-zhi, awa-ji	•
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Rangkas (Almo	ra).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Rãch; būni; rãsi kalitāti; rasi; ō.	iś; rān	Râ-mō ; yō ; rā ; rā-sī ; rā-sī nalā.
Saĭm; saitat; sa tatat; sētīn; sēti		i- Sai-mō; sayā; sai-tī; sai- ta-nalā.
Naim; nyā; nēs nēsnalā; rhichā.	; nēśan	; Rachi-mō; rachan; rachasī; rachasanalā.
Sichm; sichan(u); than-chisan; sich	sich-sa is.	Hicham; hīchan; hichasī;
Dām; dā; da-tar kalai-tatan; datī;	n; dān dā.	- Dā-m ; dā ; dā-tī ; dā-tanalā
Śēm; sēnī; śyām- si-ras; syāsi; śyā	kal-tāti	; Gyū-m; gyū-ā; gyō-sī; gyō-sīnalā.
Thu-śyū .	•	Yartō
Nenm	•	Nēnam
Yu-syū	•	Pa-chyāng
Hvānm	•	Vānam
Gān-śyū .		Tukatu
Hyang-śyū .		Nokandî
Khami	•	Khami
Kyā; kha .	•	Kha-li, kha
Kha-lai .	•	Kha-li-tan
Gār·	•	Gångr
Hã		Parantu
Jai .· .	•	Gam-luk-chē-rī
Ah		A
Mha	•	Ma-hã
Khālikach .	•	Hāy
Khamī bā ; tā bā	•	Khamī bā; tākō bā
Khamir bā•g	• ,	Khamī bā-g
Kh am ir b ā- g hvēr	• ,	Tākō bā-dāngs
Tā bā chubă	• ,	Tā bā khar-chā
Niśi bā-ś	•	Nisi bā
Bā titi; mhan bā; b	ā-chan-	Bā tittī; dalō bā; bā-chan
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Chaudāngsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggalī (Almora).	English.
Rā; rāyē; rāgē; rānalā .	Rā ; rāgayē ; rāgulā .	Lau	80. Come.
Sai ; saĭ ; saitō ; saitanlā .	Samō; saü; satō; satnalā.	Hatai	81. Beat.
Yam-m; yabay; yabkhayē; yabnalā.	Yabyō; yabkhayē; yabkha- nalā.	Phyaui	82. Stand.
Sī-chyam; si-chē-nī; si- chiyē; sichinalā.	Sichi-mō; sīchan; sīchiyē; sīchignalā.	Vō-sī-yō	83. Die.
Dā; dā-tanē; dā-tnalā; da-tō.	Dā-mō ; dā ; dā-tō ; dā-tanalā	Vai	84. Ģive.
Jhyāng-am; jhyāgayō; jhyāgayē; jhyāngalā;		Thaukai	85. Run.
jhyangay. Yar-to	Yar-tō	Thath raigvai	.86. Up.
Nēnaṃ	Nēro ; tito	Lagā	.87. Near.
Chhyãkữ	Yā-khū	Dhi	. 88. Down.
Vān-am	Vānam	Làkā	89. Far.
Larë · · · ·	Larai	Jnyāntānē	90. Before.
Ing-kō-ti · · ·	Nim-phan	Chuțătălau	91. Behind.
Kha-mi	Kha-mi; unā	Sungimai	92. Who.
Khai	Khai; khalītārī	Hāii	93. What.
Kha-chār	Kha-chārai	Su-hī	94. Why.
Gängr	Hāng	Dhauji j ōr ō	95. And.
Parantu	Lēkin	Hvē kāpharā	.96, But.
Agar	Agar	Sunō-hi	. 97. If.
Hāng	Hã; ã	Pai	98. Yes.
Mãd	Ma-li	Ahã	. 99. No.
Hāy	Hāy	Suchchair	100. Alas.
Udī bā; tig bā .	Khami bā; tig bā	Dūg īyā	101. A father.
Udī bā-g	Khamī bā-g	Hvē-kā bābā	102. Of a father.
Udī bā-mag; udī bā-jā	Khami bā-jā	Hvē-kā bābā; hvē-kā bāp; hvē-kā bābau.	103. To a father.
Udi bā-jā-khar-chī .	Khamī bā-sē; tig bā-s .	Nàgp babā	104. From a father.
Nisi bā . · .	Nisī bā, nisī bāgāngs .	Nī bábā	105. Two fathers.
Bā titi; mat bā; bā-māng	Bā tittī; mat bā; bā-māng	Bāb kubbā	106. Fathers.

English.	Kanāw ^a rī (Bash a hr).	Kanāshī,	Manchāṭī (Lahul).
107. Of fathers • •	Bōbấn-a · · ·	Bá-gan-ka	Bā-a-tu
108. To fathers · ·	Bōbấn-ũ · · ·	Bā-ga-uj · · ·	Bā-a-ting . •
109. From fathers • •	Bōbấn(-ū) dagts	Bā-ka-dits · · ·	Bā-atu dor- <u>'s</u> i
110. A daughter	Chímed	Chime; chimets	I meo
111. Of a daughter	Chímed-u · · ·	Chime-ka · ·	I meo-u
112. To a daughter .	Chímed-ū	Chīme-uj	I meo-bi
113. From a daughter	Chímed (-ŭ) dagts	Chime-dits	I meo dor- <u>ts</u> i
114. Two daughters .	Nish chimed; nish chimed ón.	Nyish chime	Jut meo · · ·
115. Daughters · •	· Chīmed-ón · · ·	Chime	Мео-ге
116. Of daughters •	Chimed-on-u	Chime-gan-ka	Meo-tu
117. To daughters •	Chimed-ón-ü	Chime-goj	Meo-ting
118. From daughters	· Chimed-on(-ū) dagts	Chīme-gan dits	Meo-tu dor- <u>ts</u> i
119. A good man .	Dam mi . · ·	· Chandits marshang	I ruthe mi
120. Of a good man •	Dam mí-u	· Chandits marshang-ka .	I ruthe mi-u
121. To a good man.	Dam mí-ū	· Chandits marshang-uj .	I ruthe mi-bi
122. From a good man	Dam mí(-û) dagts .	Chandits marshang-s	I ruthe mi-u dor-tsi
123. Two good men .	. Nish dam mī (-n) .	Nyish chanditso marshang	Jut ruthe mi-re
124. Good men •	Dam min	· Chanditso marshanga .	Ruthe mi-re
125. Of good men .	Dam mín-u	. Chanditso marshang-ka	Ruthe mi-tu
126. To good men •	Dam mín-ū	. Chanditso marshang-goj	Ruthe mi-ting
127. From good men.	• Dam mín(-ū) dagts .	. Chanditso marshang-gar dits.	Ruthe mi-tu dor-tsi
128. A good woman .	Dam tsésmī	. Shobil betrī	. I ruthe metsimi
129. A bad boy .	. Mar chang	. Mara chho	. I mázhi yo
130. Good women .	Dam tsesmin	. Shum shobile betri-ga	. Ruthe metsimi-re
131. A bad girl .	. Mar tsētsā́ds	. Nark chime	. I māzhi metsimi kaṭu .
132. Good	Dam	. Chandī; shobil .	Ruthe
133. Better	$\operatorname{Jigp}_{ar{0}}$	-dits shobil	Du be ruthe

Chamba Lähuļī.	1	Bunán (Lahul).	•
		Awa <u>ts</u> orei, awa-jii .	•
		Awa-zhog	•
•••••		Awa-zhog-chi	•
Mil-yō	-	<u>Ts</u> emed ti-ki	
Mil-yō	•	<u>Ts</u> emed ti-kii	•
Mīl-yō-vi; mīl-yō-bi.		<u>Ts</u> emed tikog	
Mīl·yō do <u>ts</u>	•	<u>Ts</u> emed tikog-chi .	•
Jur mil-yō .	•	<u>Ts</u> emed nyis-kying .	•
Mil-yor	•	<u>Ts</u> emed <u>ts</u> ore, <u>ts</u> emed-shi	•
Mil-yō-du	•	<u>Ts</u> emed-shii	•
Mīl-yō-dī	•	$\underline{T}_{ ext{S}}$ emed-shog	•
Mîl-yō-du do <u>ts</u> .	•	<u>Ts</u> emed-shog-chi	•
Ruțh mữ	•	Mi zài ti-ki	•
*****		Mi zài ti-ki-i	•
*****		Mi zài ti-kog	•
•••••		Mi zài ti-kog-chi .	•
•••••		Mi zài nyis-pi	
******		Mi zài-ji	•
•••••		Mi zài-jii	•
••••		Mi zài-zhog	-
, -		Mi zài zhog-chi	•
Ruțh mēzmi	•	<u>Ts</u> emed zài ti-ki	
Madam karū	•	Butsha marei ti-ki .	•
		Tsemed zăi-zhi .	•
Madam milyō	•	<u>Ts</u> emed marei ti-ki .	
Ruth	•	Zài	
-vē ruṭh	•	Thazu basta zài	•

	¥
Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Bā tīti-k ; bā-chā-g .	. Bā-chan-gō
Bā tigi (sic)	. Bā-chan-ḍabaru .
Ba titi batī	. Bā-chan kharchā .
Khamir chamī (chamē)	. Khamî cha-mē
Khamir chami-k	. Khami cha-mē-g .
Tā chami-chubă .	. Khami cha-mē-g dāngsū
Khamir chami bați .	. Khami cha-më kharchū
Nisi chami-k (sic) .	. Nisī cha-mē-chan .
Mhar chami; chami-chan	-s Cha-mē-chan
Chami-chā-k	. Cha-mē-chan-ag .
Chami-châ-lệkh .	. Cha-mē-chan-nibāng
Chami-chã-r (sic) .	. Cha-mē-chan khar-chā
Jhyān mī	. Khami jain mi
Khamir jhyān mī-g .	. Khamiain mi-g
Khamir jhyān mi-chāg; jhyān mi-g lēkh.	tā Khami jain mī-g dāng
Khamir jhyān mi-chār	. Khami jain mi kharch n
Niśi jhyān mi	. Nisi jain mī
Mhan jhyān mi ; jhyān m chan-s.	i- Jain mi-chan .
Jhyān mi-jā-g .	. Jain mi-chan-ag
Jhyān mī-chan .	. Jain mí-chan-gũ nībāng
Jhyān mi-chā-r	. Jain mī-chan kharchū
Khamir jhyān bachhai	. Gabū jain buchyāk cha-mē
Khamir yān nyāpan	. Gabū yān sirī
Jhyain bachhai-chan	. Jain buchyāk chamē-chan
Yān chamî	Yān cha-mē
Jhyan; jhyain	Jain
	· U-chyang jain; la-chyang

Chaudangsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggali (Almora).	English.
Bā-māng-g	Bā-māng-g	Bāb bubbau	107. Of fathers.
Bā-māng-jā	Bā-māng-jā	Bāb bubbau, bāp bubbau pitā.	108. To fathers.
Bā-jā-khar-chī	Bā-māng-sai	i -	109. From fathers.
Udī cha-mē	Unān chamē	Khuṭīyā garau	110. A daughter.
Udī cha-mē-g	Khamin chamē-mag; tig chamē-g.	Su garau-hi	111. Of a daughter.
Udī cha-mē-māg, cha-mē-jā	Tig chamē-jā	Su garō; su garō pitā	112. To a daughter.
Udī cha-mē-jā-khar-chī .	Tig chamē-sai	Sugarō	·113. From a daughter.
Nisī cha-mē	Nisi chamē	Ni garau	114. Two daughters.
Cha-mē-māng	Chame-mang	Garau	115. Daughters.
Cha-mē-māng-g	Chamē-māng-g	Gàrà-kā	116. Of daughters.
Cha-mē-māng-já	Chamē-māng-jā	Gàrã-kā-pitā	-117. To daughters.
Cha-mē-māng-s	Chamē-māng-sai	Gară-chihī	118. From daughters.
Udi bud mi	Unān bud mī	Hvēī nikō mansā	119. A good man.
Udi bad mi-g	Unăn bud mi-g	Sũg nikō mansā	120. Of a good man.
Udî bud mi-jā ·	Unān bud mī-jā	Sũg nīkai mansā	121. To a good man.
• Udi bud mi-jā-khar-chi .	Unār bud mī-sai	Sũg nikẽ mansē	122. From a good man.
Nis bud mi	Nisî bud mi	Ni nikō mansā	123. Two good men.
Bud-mī-māng	Bud mi-mang	Nīkē mansā . · .	124. Good men.
Bud mī-māng-g	Bud mi-māng-g	Nikē mansō	125. Of good men.
Bud mī-māng-jā	Bud mi-māng-jā	Nīkē mansau	126. To good men.
Bud mī-māng-s	Bud mi-māng-sai	Nīkā mansā	127. From good men.
Udī bud minā(ng)sirī .	Unan bud mi-naug-siri .	Hōi nikō mitā	128. A good woman.
Udī yād sēnd	Unân yad sirī	Hoī hār payā	129. A bad boy.
Bud mināng-sirī-māng .	Bud mi-nāng-sirī-māng .	Nikō mitā	130. Good women.
Yād cha-mē	Yad chamē	Hayrā gara u	131 A bad girl.
Bud	Bud	Niko	132. Good.
Achchhaleud; asal bud .	U-chyāng dōmā bud; ai- chyāng-rī bud; achchhō bud	Jhik nikō	133. Better.

English.			-	Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).		Kanāshī.		Manchāţī (Lahul)	l•
134. Best •		•	-	Tsến-ũ jígpō	4	Sabka-dits shobil	•	Bate be ruthe .	• .
135. High .	•			Rāngk		Uthras		Ranggi	
136. Higher •		•	•	Bodi rángk	•	-ka-dits uthras.		Du-be ranggi .	
137. Highest .		• •	•	Tsén-ū rángk	•	Sabkan-uits uthras		Bate be ranggi.	
138. A horse .		•	•	Rang; kyō-ráng horse).	(male	Rāng		I rhang	• •
139. A mare .		•	•	Mánt-rang; gón-mā	•	Mich räng .		I nabran .	
140. Horses .		•	•	Ráng-on	•	Rāng-ga	a •	Rhang-dze .	•
141. Mares .		•		Mánt-rang-on; gón-n	nā-11 .	Shum mīch-rāng		Nabran-de, -re	
142. A bull .			•	Dámas		Rhād; shokras		I bang-da .	
143. A cow .		•		Lang		Huj		I goaņa .	• .
144. Bulls .		•	•	Dámas-on; dáman		Rhâd		Bang-da-re .	•
145. Cows .		•	•	Láng-on .		Shum huja .		Goaṇª-re, goaṇe-re	•
146. A dog .		•	•	Kűi; kyō-kűi		ĭ kui		I khui	• (
147. A bitch .		•		Manţ-kttī .		Mich kuti .	•	I mingana khui, khui.	mingara
148. Dogs .		•	•	Kūí-n		Kui	•	Khui-re	•
149. Bitches	•	•	•	Mant-kūí-n .	•	Kutiga	• •	Mingana khui-re	•
150. A he goat		•	•	Āsh; āj .	•	Bokras	•	I ri <u>ts</u> a	•
151. A female g	oat	•	•	Bakór	•	Bokar	•	I lā	•
152. Goats	•	•	•	Āsh-on bákor-on		Bokra; bokare (jem	s.)	. Chhākṛa-re .	•
153. A male dee	r	•		Kyố-pō; kyố-sar	• .			I chin	•
154. A female d	leer	•		Mánt-pō; mánt-sar	•			I mingaņa chin	•
15 5 . Deer	•	•		Pō; sar .	•			Dan	•
156. I am	•	•		. Ga to-g	•	Gu totkek	•	. Gye shu-ga .	•
157. Thou art		•		. Ka to-n; ki tony	•	. Ko to-n	•	. Kā shu-na .	•
159. He is	•	•		Do to; do tosh		Nu to	•	. Du shu-t' .	•
159. We are	•	•		Níshī, ningắn, káshang, kíshang	toch tónmē.	Ni tong	•	. Ngye-re shu-ni	•
160. You are	•	•	•	. Kishī, kinān, toch (t	tony)	. Ki tong	•	Kye-re shu-ni	•

Chamba Lāhuļī.	Bunán (Lahul).
	<u>Ts</u> o-rog-chi zăi
Ranggi	Tho-ï
-vē ranggi	Thazu basta thoï
	<u>Ts</u> o-rog-chi thoï
<u>Ts</u> hāh	Shrangs tii
Nabrhã	Godma tii
	Shrangs <u>ts</u> h ăi
	Godma <u>ts</u> hãi
Bang	Lang-tsi tii
Râhd	Hambu tii , .
	Lang- <u>ts</u> i-zhi
	Hambu-zhi
Bā	Khya tii
Mē	Mo khyu tii
	Khyu-zhi
,	Mo-khyu-zhi
Rhiz	Kyud ții
Lā	La tii
	La-zhi, la-ji
	Sha-wa tii
	Sha-mọ tii
	Sha-wa
Shu-k	Gyi yen-gya
Shu-n	Han yen-na
Shu-d; shu	Tal yen
Shunni	Hing-zhi yen-ni
Shunni	Han-zhi yen-ni
	TUT TO T EKO

Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Ţuk hvē jhyān	Bir-chyāng jain-ō
Bhungnyā	Aĭsin
Mhan bhungnyā; gẫr bhu- gnu.	D-chyang aisin
Ţuk hvē pūn	Bir-chyang aisin . ,
Gub rhã	Gabū rāng
Gub rhà bhī; tā rha bachha	Gabū mō-rāng
Rhã	Rāng-chan
Rhagi	Mō-rāng-chan
Gub lă	Gabū lang
Gub bēn	Gabū bainā
Mhan là-chã	Lang-chan
Rá-chà	Bainā-chan
Gub khvī	Gabū khī
Gub chhvār	Gabū mō-khī
Khvi-chà	Khi-chan
Chhvār khvi-chā	Mō-khī-chan
Gub mal; sar	Gabū sir ; tākō ma-lā
Gub lāsữ	Gabū lā-sāng
Mál	Sir-chan
Gub harin	. Gabū phō-phū
Tā harinī	Gabū mō-phū
Harin ·	Phū-chan .
	Jī lhē
Ga śiśin ; ga lhēn .	Gai lhē
(Hvē lhē)	. Tad lhē
Nung na-sisu Gan sisin	Ing lhē
W P I 554	Gaini lhē

Chaudāngsī (Almora).	By āngsī (Almora).	Janggalī (Almora).	English.
Asal bud	Lai chyāng rī bud	Ait niko	134. Best.
Angsid	Thaid	Argō	135. High.
Dōmā angsid ; gāngr angsi	U-chyang-rī thaid; gaur thaid.	Jhik argau	136. Higher.
Lachachāng angsid .	. Lai chyāng-rī thaid	Ait argau	137. Highest.
Udī rāng	. Unān rāng ·	Hvēi ghōrā	138. A horse.
Udī mō rāng	Unān mō-rāng	Hvaii ghōri	139. A mare.
Räng-mäng	Rang-mang	Ghōṛē	140. Horses.
Mō rāng-māng .	. Mō-rāng-māng	Ghōṛiyā	141. Mares.
Udi ling	. Unān lē	Hvēi dīgā	142. A bull-
Udī sirai	. Unān rai	Hvēi garē	143. A cow.
Ling-mang	. Lē-māng.	Jhik dingā	. 144. Bulls.
Sirai-māng	. Rai-māng	Gãrã	. 145. Cows. ·
Udi nau-kh v i	. Unān ni-khī	Hvēi kui	, 146. A dog.
Udi chhāi nau-khvi	. Unān chhai ni-khī .	Hvēī chbauri	. 147. A bitch.
Nau-khvi-māng .	. Ni-khi-māng	Kuiyē	. 148. Pogs.
Chhāi nau-khvi-māng	. Chaii ni-khī-māng .	Chhauriyã	. 149. Bitches.
Udī mā-lā	. Unān sir	. Hvaii bakvā	150. A he goat.
Udī mhā̃-sāng ; udī lā-sāng	Unăn lāsāng	Hvaiī pāţ	. 151. A female goat.
Mā-lā-māng .	. Sir-mang ·	Bakē	. 152. Goats.
Phō	. Phō ·	Hirnā	. 153. A male deer.
Mõ phō	. Mo-pho	Hirani	. 154. A female deer.
Phō-māng	· Fho-mang · · ·	Jhīk hiran	. 15 5. Deer.
J ī lhē	. Jī lhīyē	. Nā hi	156. I am.
Gan lhē-n	. Gan lhēnō	. Nachī hī	157. Thou art.
Vo lhē	. U lhi	. Hàt-kō-hã	. 158. He is.
In lhē-nē	. Jīyē lhīyē	Nā hī	. 159. We are.
Ganī lhē-nī	. Gayē hīnō	. Hvēn-cha-hi	. 160. You are.

English.		Kanāw ^a rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī.	Manchāṭī (Lahul).		
161. They are .	•	Dốsung, dógon, tō (tosh)	. Duga tush	. Do-re shu-re .		
162. I was .	•	. Ga tốkē-g, tē-g, tots .	. Gu totk	Gye to-i-ga.		
163. Thou wast	•	· Ka tốkẽ-n, tên, tots .	. Ko totkenő	. Ka to-i-na		
164. He was .	•	Do toch, tố kẽ, tots, tẽsh tố kẽsh.	h, Dui totkő	. Do to-i		
165. We were .	•	Níshi (ningắn) tốkệch, tặc tots; káshang (kíshang	h, Nī tot-keng	Ngye-re to-i-ni		
166. You were	•	tókē, tē, tots. Kíshī (kinān) tókēch, tēch tots.	Ki totkeng	Kye-re to-i-ni .		
167. They were	•	Dốsung (đógon) toch tốkē, tots, etc.	Du-gai tot-ke	Do-re to-i-re		
168. Be	•	Hach, hachich, hachiny	Ach			
.69. To be .	•	Tón-mig; háchī-mig; nímig; tōshī-mig.	Hashi-ta	Shu-bi . ,		
70. Being	•	Háchis		Shu-tār shu-tār		
71. Having been	•		Ḥashi-ge	Shu-che il-je		
72. I may be .	•	G ^a hachíds-gēā	Gu degek	Chhaï-nye-u gye shu-ge		
73. I shall be .	• . •		Gu hashitak	Gye shu-og		
74. I should be	• •		Gu detak	Gye shubi jüs (I must be)		
75. Beat .	• •	Tong; tong-ch; tong-sh	То-и	Teng-u		
77. Beating .	• •	tóng-shi-mig.		Teng-zi		
78. Having beaten	• •	Tóng-tong; tóng-chis; tóng-shis.		Teng-za-teng-za		
9. I beat			Toge-kush	Teng-dza, teng-nge		
30. Thou beatest	• •	G"-s tóng-ō-to-g		Gye teng-dza-tag		
31. He beats .	•	Ka-s tóng-ō-to-n; kis tóng- ō-tony. 'i		Kaï teng-dza ta-n		
32. We beat .		Ningān-s tóng-ō-toch;	37-	Doï teng-dzak'		
33. You beat		kíshang-s¦tongō-tónmē. Kinān-s tóng-ō-toch	Ni to-tang Ki to-ta-kung	Ngye-tsi teng-dza ta-ni .		
84. They beat		Dógon-s tóng-ō-to		Kye-tsi teng-dza-ta-ni		
85. I beat (Past Te		Ga-s tong-ig	togu-ta-kush.	Do-tsi teng-dza-to-re.		
86. Thou beatest $Tense$).	(Past	Ka-s tóng-in		Gye teng-nga te-g		
87. He beat (Past	Tense) .			Ka-i teng-nga te-n Do-i teng-nga te-l-		
				Do-i teng-nga tek'		

•

Chamba Lāhuļi	i.		Bunán (Lahul).
Shār	•	•	Tal-zhi yen
Tõig	•	•	Gyi ni-za
Tōin		•	Han ni-n-za-
Tõi	•	•	Tal ni-za
Tōini		•	Hing-zhi goai- <u>ts</u> ha
Tōini	•	•	Han-zhi goan- <u>ts</u> ha
Tōir	•	•	Tal-zhi goan-tsha
			·
			Kya-men, ni-men
		,	Kya-kya, nia-nia
			Kya-zhi
			Kha-che-ni gyi kya-gyeg (perhaps I shall be).
Shag	•	•	Gyi kya-gyeg
Gī hūbī tōig .	•	•	Gyi kya-re gyun (I must be)
Teū; tereni	•	•	Khye-ra
Tezi	•	•	Khyed-chum
			Khyed-kya
·····			Khyed-zhi
Tezado, tezadog	•	•	Gyi-zi khyed-cheg
Tēzādo-g	•	•	Han-zi khyed-cha-na .
Tēzād	•	•	Tal-zi khyed-cha-re
Tēzādoni		•	Hing-zhi tshi khyed-chheg .
Tēzādoni	•	•	Han-zhi <u>ts</u> hi khyed- chha g-ni
Tēzādor .	•	•	Tal-zhi <u>ts</u> hi khyed-chhag-re
Tenggāde-g .	٠	•	Gyi-zi tib-men-gya
Tenggāde-n .	•	•	Han-zi tib-za-na . ,
Tenggāde .	•	•	Tal-zi tib-za
			<u> </u>

Rangkas (A	(Imora)).	,	Dārmiyā (Almora).	{
Us sini	•	•	•	Usi lhē	•
Ji sīs .		•	•	Ji nisis	
Ga si-nau-s	•		•	Gai nisinsŭ	- !
Hvē śich		•	•	Tad nîsansû	
Jē śiś .	•			Ing nisinsū	•
Gani și-nai-s	•			Gani nisinsū	-
Us sich .	•			Usi ni-chū	•
Ah .		•	•	Lhē	
Lhikoh .	•	•		Lhē-mō	
Lhinpan sing-o	chyan	g	•	Lhē-lan	
Lhi-nyē .	•	•	•	Lhé-kè	
Ji lhêj .		•	•	Ji lhu-ka-chū	
Ji śis .		•	•	Jī lhēyāngsī	•
Ji lhē-m chíng	g-ni	•	•	Ji lhé-ma chin g-s i .	•
Sālō .	•	•	•	Sai-nī	•
Sālā	•	•	•	Sai-nig	•
Sai-ninatā	• .	•	•	Sainlātānī	•
Sai-nē .	•	•	•	Sainamū	•
Ji-s sā∗tī	•	•	•	Jī-s sai-tī	•
Ga-s saitnalā	•	•		Ga-s sai-tan	•
Usī chamak	laitat	•	•	U-s sai-tā	•
Jī-s saitalā	•		•	Ing sai-tan	•
Gani śai-tina	lā	•	•	Gainī sai-tā	٠
Hvē saitkī	•	•		Usì sai-tā	•
Ji-s sais .	•	•		Ji-s-nā sēyā-s	-
Ga-s saisātar		•		Ga-s sē-n-s	٠
Hvēda-s snsa	it	•		. U-khanā sē-s	•
W. P. L.	558				

Chaudāngsī (A	lmora).	Byāngsī	(Almora).		Janggali (Almora).	•	English.
Usī lhē-nē .	•		U lhī .	• •	•	Vai hi		161. They are.
Jī nīyēs	•		Ji niyēsō.			Nā-hi		162. I was.
Gan niyan-s .			Gan lhēnō		•	Namva-kē-hā .		163. Thou wast.
Ū nī-s	•		U nī-sō .		•	Ab-tar-hyã .	• •	164. He was.
In ninhēs .	•		Ji-lai niyēsō		•	Hvai-kō-hā		165. We were.
Ganî ninhês .	•		Gani lai nī-n	-sō .	•	Namva-kō-hā .		166. You were.
Usī ninhēs .	•		U nī-sō .		•	Hvai-kō-h ā .		167. They were.
Lhē	•		Lhi .		•	Kāhirī		168. Be.
Lhē-nī	•	•	Lhi-mō .	• •	•	Higalë		169. To be.
Lhê-gai niy ang-g	•	•	Lhi-kē nī-mō		٠	Hît kuhârî .		170. Being.
Lhī-lhē-ma-chū			Lhi-kai .		•	Ait h ãḍhi		171. Having been.
Ji lhyāgē .	•		Ji lhĭkai .		•	Kāhirī	, ,	172. I may be.
Ji lhyāng .	•	•	Jī lhīyai .		٠	Kāhīrā	•	173. I shall be.
Jī-jā lhē-m chīna	ai .	•	Jī-jā lhē-m cl	ning-kan	•	Kihiri	•	174. I should be.
Saiiya	•		Saü .			Hãnổ		175. Beat.
Sai-m	•	•	Sa-mō .		•	Hatai	•	176. To beat.
Sai-gēţām .	•		Sa-kai tā-mō		•	Hatēt pathā	•	17. Beating.
Dag-sain .	•		Sa-sai-ma-cht	i	•	Hãno	•	178. Having beaten.
li-s sai-tū .	•		Jī-s sā-tū			Tap hatān-rai .	• !	179. I beat.
Ga-s sai-ta-n .	•	•	Ga-s sa-tan	•	•	Nihã-no talithā .	•	180. Thou beatest.
J-s sai-tā .	•		U-s sa-tā		•	Ni-hā-nō talithā .	• 1	181. He beats.
n-s sai-ta-nē .	•		Ji-sai sa-tū			Tap hatānā		182. We beat
danī-sē sē-ta-nē			Ga-sai sa-tan			Ni hatā	•	183. You beat.
Jsi-s sai-ta-nē	•		U-s sa-tā			Naih galanoth .	•	184. They beat.
i-s sēgas .			Ji-s sa-k-sō			Nai hattā	• i	185. I beat (Past Tense).
dasai sē-n-s .			Ga-s san-s		•	Vāī hattā	•	186. Thou beatest (Pass Tense).
Jsaisēs .	•		U-ssai-sō			Vã hattā	•	187. He beat (Past Tense),

English.	Kanāw ^e rī (Bash a hr).	Kanāshī.	Manchâțī (Lahul).
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Ningān-s tóng-ich; kíshang-s tóng-yē.	Ni to-meng	Ngye-tsi teng-nga ten .
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Ķinān-s tóng-ich	Kī to-ge-kung	Kye-tsi teng-nga-ten .
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Dógon-s tóng-ā	Dugash toge-kush	Do-tsi teng-nga ter
191. I am beating .	Ga-s tong-o-to-g .	Gu to-gu-tak	Gye teng-1za-to-tog .
192. I was beating .	Ga-s tóng-ō-ṭē-g	Go toz tod-kek	Gye teng-dza-to-i-ga .
193. I had beaten •	Ga-s tóng-shids toch .	Gu to-me-kun	Gye teng-dza te-g
194. I may beat	G*-s tóng-shids-gēā	Gu to-tan	Chhaïnyeu gye teng-mo-ga
195. I shall beat .	Ga-s tóng-tog; ga-s tóng-cho-g; ga tóng-shog.	Gu to-tak	Gye-teng-mo-g
196. Thou wilt beat .	Ka-s tong-to-n	Ko to-ta-kun	Ka-i teng-mo-na
197. He will beat .	. Do-s tóng-to	Dus to-ta-ku	Do-i teng-mo-to
198. We shall beat .	Ningān-s tóng-toch; kíshang-s tóng-tē.	Ni to-tang	Ngye- <u>ts</u> i teng-mo-ni
199. You will beat .	. Kinán-s tóng-toch .	Ki to-ṭa-kun	Kye-tsi teng-mo-ni
200. They will beat .	Dógon-s tóng-to	Dugash tota-kush	Do-tsi teng-mo-re
201. I should beat .		Gu to tang	Gye teng-dzi jüs
202. I am beaten .		Gu to-to bong-tak, or ang-p togu-ta-kush.	Gyebi teng-si tot'
203. I was beaten .	. ,	Ang-p to-ge-kush	Gyebi teng-si toi
204. I shall be beaten	• . • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Gu toto bura-tak	Gye teng-sa.yo-g
205. I go	. G' bí-ō to-g	Gu bung-tak	Gye yoā to-g
206. Thou goest	. Ka bí-ō to-n	Ko bungt	Kā yoā to-na
207. He goes . •	. Do bī-ō to	Du bokuta	Du yoak'
208. We go	Ningấn bí-ō toch; kishang bĩ-ō tónmē.	Ni bong-tang, or, bu-ko-tang.	Ngye-re yoâ.to-ni
209. You go	. Kinấn bí-ō toch	Kī bong-tang; or, buko-tang.	Kye-re yoā to-ni
210. They go	Dógon bí-ō to.	Duga boke	Do-re yoā to-re
211. I went	. Ga bī-é-g	Gu ko-kek	Gye il-i-ga, ildeg
212. Thou wentest .	. Ka bí-ĕn	Ko bo-ken	Kā il-i-na, ilde-na
213. He went	. Do bigy, bī-ē-sh	Du bok	Du il-i, ildek'
214. We went	. Ningấp bí-ệ-ch; kishang bí-ệ.	Ni bo-keng	Ngye-re il-dani, ili-ni

Chamba Lâhuļī.	Bunán (Lahul).
Tenggādeni	. Hing-zhi tahi tib-men .
Tenggādeni	. Han-zhi <u>ts</u> hi tib- <u>ts</u> ha-ni .
Tenggåder	. Tal-zhi-tahi tib-taha
	.Gyi-zi khyed-kya ni-a
Tezadeg	
	Gyi-zi khyed-men-gya .
·····	.Kna-che-ni gyi-zi khyed- kyi-la.
Tēmog	Gyi-zi khyed-kya-ta .
Tēmon	. Han-zi khyed-kya-ta-na
Tēmdo	. Tal-zi khyed-kya-ta .
Tēmoni	Hing-zhi-tshi khyed-kya- theg.
Tēmoni	. Han-zhi-tshi khyed-kya- thad-ni.
Tēmor	. Tal-zhi- <u>ts</u> hi-khyed-kya-thad
Gī tēvī tōig	. Gyi-zi khye-cha-gyun
••• ••	.Gyi-rog khyed-cha-re
	Gyi-rog khyed-kyu-za .
*****	.Gyi-rog khyed-kya-thad .
Yuādō, yuādog	. Gyi egyeg
Yuadon	. Han eya-na
Yūād	Tal eyare
Yuādoni	. Hing-zhi ekhyek' .
Yuādoni	. Han-zhi ekhag-ni
Yuādor	. Tal-zhi ekhag-re
Īdeg · · ·	. Gyi e-len
Ĭden · · ·	. Han e-lena · · ·
Īdē · · ·	. Tal c-len
Īdeni	. Hing-zhi elen-rı

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	Rangkas (Almora)) .		Dārmiyā (Almora).	1 40 4
	Nung sasain	•	• ,	•	In-sai sēyās	•
	Khami sasait	•		•	Gani-satā sēs	•
	Hvē-chan sasa	it		•	Usī-satā sēs	•
	Ji-s sāti-lā	•	•	•	Jī-s sai-tī	
	Ji-s sainsis		•	•	Jī-s sai-lan tāyasū .	
	Ji-s sais .	•	•	•	Jī-s sai-tū	-
	Ji-s saitati; ji	-s śāti	•	•	Jī-s sai-tī	
	*** **	••			Ji-s sai-yāng-ti .	•
	Gaś sātan		•		Ga-s sē-yã-tã	
	Hvē-chan sāt	•	•	•	U-s sē-yā-tā	•
	Ji-s sait .	•	•	•	In-s sē-yǎ-tǎ	•
	Ga-ś śā .	•	•		Gani-s sē-yã-tani .	•
•	Api sāt .	•	•	•	Usī sē-yā-tā	-
	Ji-s sai-m chy	ung-n	i	•	Ji-s sai-m ching-ni .	•
	Ji-s sait; jiko	hi śicl	1.	•	Ji pung-sai-sū; ji p chasō.	ang-
	Jikmaślā; jik	saiti	•	•	Ji pung-sai-nī-sē-sū; pung-hicha-sō.	jī
	Jik kamśaśi	•	•	•	Jī pung-sai-yāng-tā .	•
	Ji diś .	•	•	•	Jī dī-sī	
	Ga diśn .	•	•	•	Gai disinalā	•
	Hvē din .	•	•	•	U di-ni	•
ţ	Nung disung	•	•	•	In disvan	•
₩	Gan disin	•	•	•	Ganī disinīlā	•
	Hvē-jan dīn	•	•	•	Usī dī-tī , .	-
	Ji diś .	•	•	•	Jī dī-sī	•
	Ga dinōś	•	•	•	Gai dī-nēsū	•
	Hvē di-din	•	•	•	Û dê-sû	•
	Nungidyang	s.	•	•	In diyas	•
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Chaudāngsī (A	lmor	.).		Byāngsi (Almora).		Janggali (Almora	a).	English.
In-sa sē-nē-s	,	•	•	In-s sansō	•	Vain hatā .		188. We beat (Past Tense)
Ganī-sai sē-nī-s			•	Gani-s sani-sõ		Vē hatā		189. You beat (Past Tense)
Usī-sai sē-nē-s		•	•	Usi-s sanchō		Hattā		190. They beat (Past Tense)
Ji-s sai-g-tā-tu	•	•	•	Ji-s sa-k tā-tō		Nā hatai bī .		191. I am beating.
Ji-s sai-g-tāg-as			•	Ji-s sa-k tā-tō niyēs .	•	Halā syāgō .		192. I was beating.
Ji-s sai-g-as	•	-	•	Ji-s sa-k-sō		Nā hānēvāth ā	• •	193. I had beaten.
Ji-s sai-tāng, sai	i-tu			Ji-s sa-chī-tā	•	Na chalain .		194. I may beat.
Ji-s sai-yāng .			•	Ji-s sa-tō	•	Na hatāchau .		195. I shall beat.
Ga-s sē-yan	,		•	Ga-s saino	•	Kāt hataigā .		196. Thou wilt beat.
Usai sē-yang	•		•	U-s sailō		Hattālē	• .	197. He will beat.
In-sai sē-yang-n	ē		•	In-s sainē		Nā hattaigā .		198. We shall beat.
Ganī-s sē-yang-	ni	•	•	Ganî-s sa-tani		Gatā hattai .		199. You will beat.
Usî-s sē-yang .	ı		•	Ati-s sai-lō		Ui hattai .		200. They will beat.
Ji-s sai-m chī-na	ı-ni		•	Jī sa-m chi-khayē .	•	Na hatai .		201. I should beat.
Jiyō dung-s; jī	pach	yāng-	y ē	Jī pa-chyāng-yēsō; pa-jyā yēsō.	ing-	Ta (i.e., na) hãtẫng		202. I am beaten.
Jiyō dung-sir pachyāng-nē.	niy	ēs;	jī	Jī pa-chyâng-tha niyēsō		Na hatãng .		203. I was beaten.
Jiyō dung-syāga	yē	•	•	Jī pa-chyāng-nan .		Nā siggāy .		204. I shall be beaten.
Jī diyē	•	•	•	Jī diyē	•	Gārī gōŗā .		205. I go.
Gan dēnā .			•	Gan di-ganō	•	Nă jai		206. Thou goest.
Ū dī-nī			•	U di-gan	,	Raijai		207. He goes.
U ai-ni				•				208. We go.
In dī-nē .	•	•	•	In di-ganyè	•	Aṛyū gā		208. We go.
In ḍī-nē .		•	•	In di-ganyè Gani di-gni-lā		Aṛyū gā Nai ghatai, nārī ūng	 g-gā .	209. You go.
	•	•					• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
In dī-nē . Ganī dī-nī .	•			Ganī dī-gnī-lā		Nai ghatai, näri üng		209. You go.
In dī-nē . Ganī dī-nī . Usī dī-nē .	•	·		Ganī dī-gnī-lā Atī dig-pat	•	Nai ghatai, näri üng Ghatai	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	209. You go. 210. They go.
In dī-nē . Ganī dī-nī . Usī dī-nē . Jī dēyas .	•		!	Ganī dī-gnī-lā Atī dig-pat Jī diyē		Nai ghatai, nārī ūng Ghatai Gārī jai	g-gā .	209. You go. 210. They go. 211. I went.

English.	Kanāw'rī (Bashahr).	Kanāshī.	Manchāṭī (Lahul).
215. You went	Kinấn bí-ệch	Ki bo-keng	Kye-re ili-ni, ilda ni .
216. They went	Dógon bīgy, bí-ē-sh	Duga boke	Do-re ili-re, ildore .
217. Go	Byū	Bungt	Il-a
218. Going	Bí-ō	Bungsta bungsta	Yoa yoa
219. Gone	Bí-bi	Bok	Il-je
220. What is your name?.	Ka-n nāmang tet?	Kanka chhuge nam ?	Kanu min chhi? .
221. How old is this horse?	Ju ráng-ū tē bóshang? .	Nn rang-ka toda bres to? .	Di rhang tāipa shut'?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Ju-ágts Kashmíras tang térā vark dű?	Nich Kashmir toda dur to?	Kashmir der <u>-ts</u> i anyo oʻi tot
223. How many sons are there in your father's		Kan bá-ka kim-a tai (or toda) chhanga tush?	Kanu bā-u ghar-rang ta mi yo tore?
house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Tốro ga gob vork yú-yun to-g.	Gu tīd duraz andez bura- kek.	Gye tog san-jig oï joriga
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	bōbā-u rings tang jánē	biang du-ka ringz-rang	Gyin aguu yo do-u rhing rang bea lasi tot'.
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse		shot-ke. Kim-a chhog ghore-ka kathi to.	Tshangsi rhang-ngu chig du ghar-rang tot'.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Gā-ū nū-u pishtíng den shed.	Du-ka pishting-nga kathi piching.	-
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ga-s dố-u cháng-ũ gob tóng-shids-to.	Gu kan-ka chho-uj masti bent lāmek (or lāge).	Gye do-u yo-bi mast t ^a ráb- <u>t</u> teng-ri-ga.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Do ráng-ū bal den lang-on zen röägö to.	l .	
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Do nữ bốtang-ũ yũtúng rang den tốshis dữ.	Du ranga nu biṭingan yen nāshik,	
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Nū́-u baiā an-u ringsēs lā̃mas dū.	Du-ka bau du-ka ringz-ka nits lamas to.	
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Nű-u mólang nish rūpías pü paúlī dū.	Du-ka mulang rāi tok to .	Dō-u las ḍhaï ṭangga shut
233. My father lives in that small house.	Ang bōbā nū gátots kím-ō tốsh-ō tō-sh.	Ang bā nu phākuch kima royo-to.	Gyiu bā du bare ghar-ran bang-dzak'.
234. Give this rupee to him	Jū rūpíā nữ-ī ran	Nu tokup duguj raț	Di ṭangga do-bi rǎu .
235. Take those rupees from him.	Nū rūpíān-ū nū-dagts un .	Duga tokap du-dits ūt .	Dō ṭangga-re dō-u do-r- <u>ts</u> lep-tu.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Nű-ū gob sítiā, bashes tsúrā.	Dup masti to-u (tomuk) hed bushus <u>ts</u> hudke.	Du-bi ruthe teng-nge rashi rang tshu-du.
237. Draw water from the well.	Kū́ang-ōts tì ḍab	Kuats tī du-tang (or dut).	Khuang-dzi ti hutu .
238. Walk before me	Ang oms pai	Aka nandrīs por	Gyeu tu-i jo
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	búd-ō tō?	buro-to?	Kanu thal-e atu kāṭu a
war that.	Hat-ágts ka-s nű-ű zogkin?	Dup ko hate ditse khang- men?	Kaï du atu do-r- <u>ts</u> i <u>ts</u> um de-na?
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Dēsháng-ō id baniá dagis .	Grāmanga haṭidaro dits .	Nagar-rau natwāņi-u dor-t

Chamba Lāhuļī.	Funáu (Lahul).
Īdeni	Han-zhi elen ni
Īder	Tal-zhi eleu
Īl; īlani	Ela
	Еуа-еуа
	Eli-tsug
Kā ming chhi shu?	Han-gyi ming kha yen? .
Di rhãphi têmi shūi ? .	The shrangs-tog it'-bing-kya-za ?
Dets Kashmīr chhirī ōhētār tō?	Khyag-chi Khachul ichig waï-m?
$K\widetilde{\overline{a}}$ bāō dor tēmi yō tod? .	Han-gyi awai kyum-dog idmi bu- <u>-s</u> ha goag ?
Gé tō ōhētārē āndō	Than gyi dag-mel waï-chi ran-gya.
Geū cheje bāō yōē dō rhīra sādē biāh lhāto.	Gyii a-gu-i bu-tsha-g tal-gyi shring bag-mag ri-shi-ni.
Chungh sãsi rhân (or rhẫphi) palānz tod.	Shii shrangs-kyi chhiga tha- zu kyum-dog ni.
Dō thākharī palānz tshū .	Chhiga tal-gyi gyab-tog bu- ra.
Gī dō yō hajē tenggādeg . Rāỗ punzarī trāf ghuaņ	Gyi-zi tal-gyi bu-tsha-rog tal-chag mang-po khyed- men-gya. Roang-gi tib-tsog tal dundo
pauhālē ruā <u>ts</u> ādē.	roag-ka-re.
Buttho prea du rhan tothi tezi toi.	kyı yar-tog zhod-chi-ni.
Dō nuā ēnō rhing vē mōrē tō.	Tal-gyi a-chho ta-i a-che basta kyui ni.
Do lāhā dhāi ṭangg	Tha-zu-i las phed-dang sumi yen.
Geā bā bāē chumhu brā .	Gyi-i awa thazu phē <u>ts</u> ē- <u>ts</u> i kyum dog zhod-chi-ni.
Dōbī dī ṭangg ranī keō .	The tangka tal-dog da .
Dū ṭangg dō dots nenz hādeu.	Tha-zu tangka tal-gyi nung- chi thin-na.
Dō kễ hajē têũ thāzeran tshū.	Tal-dog e-po khyed-zhi ra- shi-dang chhun-na
Bāini tī hund	Chhu-dong-chi soti hoán-na
Giú tāī jō	. Gyi basta du-reg dong .
Kã thalē āduh yō ābād?	. Han-gyi kho-chi su-i bu- tsha ra-re ?
Kễ du ādō do <u>ts</u> hānd ān ?	Han-zi tha-zu su i nung-chi Ishong-men ?
Gī haŗī do <u>ts</u> hāndā .	. Legs-kyi hatipaï nung-chi .

Rangkas (Almora).	Dārmiyā (Almora).
Gan dinis	Ganî dênîsō
U dēj · · ·	Usī dīsō
Di . · · ·	Dē
Dēlmhā ; dadē ; dinēg .	Dē-lan
Tābēn . · ·	Tāybachū
Gō-g kha mhyà śini?	Gai kha mang-sēn?
I rhà gulà syangn sini? I rhà umar gulà lhyà?	Nai rang ulāng syāng-nī? nadō rāng ulāng in kōtā?
Ida-patī Kāsmir-k mulk gulā hvānm sini?	Dō kharchū Kasmīrū ulāng vānī ?
Go bā-g sung-r gulà sēr sini?	i Go bā chim-rū ulāng sirī nisīnī?
Jyē thyā mhan hvānn gamchīs.	Jī thiyā dalo vanam gam- chayesā.
Ji kākā-g sērī-g u rhangśē gō dagar baryād lhingcht	i., ti bagō ga-s; ji-gu kaka-gu . ! sirī-gū bāgu-chā u-gu .
U chyam-ar sin rhà jin śir	rangsyā jölika-chū. ni Idū chim-rū idū sīn rāng-gū taigā nī-sī-nī
Hvē jīn hvēdō-g lung-tā-tē.	ar Taigā ū-lang-rū tā-nī; u-jō taigā chayā.
Ji-s vī-gō sērī chābuk- mhan ksīś.	so Ji-sū u-g sirī-jo dalo chyāk- samās kamī-sū.
Vī hvēdā ṭuk-yart rai-ma hvēt.	lā Ü idā dāng-gā pisā-rū ṭāng rō-lan-tā-tā.
U tā sing-go khvā-syū rhā-yaran ksyūchēn.	tā Ū tadū sing-g ramarū tākō rāng-rū-ṭī syōngksin nisīnī
U pi-khan u rhangśya h mhan nhan śini.	rī yambā bung nisîni.
U-g vár nisi pūr nāyyal n sini.	nul Ü mölü näsä paisä nisini .
Jē bā hvē nyāpan chyam rhai-ni.	syongksinī.
Ē mul u dā nē (or dā-tē)) . Nadō rupayā vō-jō dā-nī .
Ē mul u-jabš-paṭī kur	. Tad rupayã vō-jō-chū kur-nī
gvidai.	ng-s U jain kama-nī hāng jyāng-s gvī-nī.
Hvē kū-paţi ti thâ .	. Idū lāvēs tī thai-nī .
Ji gán-syügan chàn .	. Jī-g tūtū dē
Gani-g hyà-su kha-mi- rai-ni? Ga-sō i gudai-baṭī mil-	rā-nī ?
nau-ś (or möl-kur-nai Hyē sang-khữ tá dugā	i-ś)? (tōnasň)?
bari.	pañchā-jō.

Chaudāngsī (Almora).	Byāngsī (Almora).	Janggalī (Almora).	English.
Gani di-nis	Ganī di-nī-sō	Nai ghatai	215. You went.
Usī di-nēs	U dē-sau	Va kā-lē	216. They went.
Dē	Dī	Gatai	217. Go.
Dēgēnim ; dē-di-man-chū .	Di-gai, di-g-yē, dī-g	Gatā	218. Going.
Pi-dī-s	Pī-dī-sō	Gatā	219. Gone.
Gan kha min-at?	Nā min kha min ta-lē? .	Nång nām dhām kuni? .	220. What is your name?
Hidī rāng ulāng syāgat lhē (ulāng un kukat-ni-yāng?)	Ai rāng ulāng syāng-tha-in ; ai rāng in ulāng lhī ?	Raighōṛā gai chōkē buḍhā ?	221. How old is this horse?
Hidā-khar-chī Kasmīr ulāng vānam anī ?	Anē-kharchī Kāsmīr ulāng vānam-in?	Dhikurā Kāsmir mulk jhik lăkā ?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Nā bā chim-jā ulā sirī ananē?	Na bā chim-jā ulāng sirī- māng inan?	Ghai payō kuni?	223. How many sons are therein your father's
Ti thiyāng mat vānam gamchēs.	Than jyā jī mat vānam diyēso.	Nā dainā jhīk lākā raikvā .	house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ji-g kāku sirī võ rangsyā- tē-bhā dhāsī kalīchu; ji-g kāku sirī-g byŏū võ	tī jōrō byō-lhī-nē-gī ; ji-g kākū-g sirī-g byō u-g	Nā payã bhaūvā năgā bhainyā săgā bihā khaīyā.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
ringsyā-tē lhīch. Ati chim-jā ati sid rāng-g taikā anī.	rangsyā tī lhī-chō. Atī chim-jā atī sit rāng-g tēgā in.	Ai-n-mat dhaulyā ghōryō bākhar.	dle of the white
Võ lug hēr taikā ṭay (ṭainì)	Ati rang lung-g-yar tēgā tānī.	Suī-hi bākhar puṭṭī thā .	horse. 227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Ji-s võ siri mat chyāk-dāgas	Ji-s võ sirī-jā mat chyāk- samā dā-kas.	Nå sui-hi bhaūvā jhik sikrā sainō.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Achchhē atī vēg chang hēr tāng jā-g anēn.	Võ ati däng-g pisä-yar täng- rai tõk-tä-tanan.	Hvai lahi alkō dhurā dingā hacharō ūṭā lā-hi.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Atī atī sing mitatū tig rāng-jā ti syŏk-sid anī.	Vē atī sing yē-khū tig rāng- jā-ṭī syōngksid-in.	Hvē lahi sigē hvēn-kā-nī ghōrā raphau.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
U-g pì võ rangsyā chyag-rī bhungtai anī.	U-g pī võ rangsyā chyāng- rī bung thain.	Suī bhaū pā-nī-kā bhainyu bhaūvā.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Atī mölū ngai muhar anī .	U-g maulu ngai muhara in	Sui pangā muharā	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Jī-g bā ati mīd chim-jā anī .	Ji-g bā ati mīd chim-jā vasat-in.	Uthulā nau (sic)	233. My father lives in that small house.
Hidī rupayā vō dātē; hidī rupayā vō-jā dāyā.	Ai rupayã u-jà dā-tī (da-ni)	Rupayā vai	234. Give this rupee to him.
Atī rupayã-māng vō-jā- kharchī kōr-san.	Atī rupayā̃-māng vō-jā kōr- yō.	Rupayā pitai	235. Take those rupees from him.
Võ bud-syūng dhungaya hāng phī-s gvīya.	Atī bud syūng-g saii gāngr phī-māng-s gīyō.	Hatau chai jyōṛā hōi dai .	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Ati kuvāngku kharchī ti havēy.	Atī bāgī-khu-kharchī tī hvangiyō.	Ti lyā-lā	237. Draw water from the well.
Ji-g larē chham	Ji-g larē chham	Nă gīt tājai	238. Walk before me.
Nā yung-kō-tī khamî siri rānī?	Nāg nigam khamī-g sirī rā-gan?	Ni hà-là binyarō?	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Ga-s ail kha-mī-jā tōnas (tōnis)?	Ga-s atī khamī-jā tōnīsō?	Mōlè pitā ? ,	240. From whom did you buy that
Atī sang-khu-chī tig dukāndārī-jā.	Ati sang-khu-chi tig pañchā- jā-kharchī.	Gan-kā mālipai dūkā-jar .	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

The mountainous region between the Assam Valley and Tibet, from Bhutan in the west to the Brahmaputra in the east, is inhabited by a series of tribes which all speak Tibeto-Burman languages. Beginning from the west, they are the Akas, the Daflās, the Abor-Miris, and the Mishmis. The last mentioned tribe comprises several subtribes, such as the Chulikātā, the Digāru, and the Mījū. The dialects spoken by all these tribes will in this Survey be brought together into one group, the North Assam group.

Most speakers of the dialects of this group live outside the settled territories of British India, and the numbers returned at the censuses of 1891 and 1901 were accordingly unimportant. The table which follows registers the details—

					Name	e of la	nguag	е.			_		Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Aka	•	•	•	•				•	•		•	•	20	26
f Abor	•		•		•	•	•		•	•	•		170	357
Miri	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	•			35,510	40,472
Daflā	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•			990	805
Mishmi	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•		•	•	220	71
											To	TAL	36,910	41,731

We have no trustworthy information about the number of speakers outside British India.

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Konow, Sten,—Note on the Languages spoken between the Assam Valley and Tibet. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1902, pp. 127 and ff.

The North Assam group is not a well-defined philological group with salient grammatical features distinguishing it from other Tibeto-Burman forms of speech.

The Abor-Miris and the Daflas speak dialects which are so closely related that they can justly be considered as one and the same form of speech. In vocabulary it often strikingly agrees with one or the other forms of Mishmi, as will be seen from the short table which follows—

Arrow		•	•	•		$\mathbf{Dig\bar{a}ru}$	m - $p\ddot{u}$				Daflā	$ar{o}$ - $par{u}$
\mathbf{Blood}			•	•		Mījū	ui .				"	ū ī
Brother						Digāru	$nar{a}$ - $par{v}$					a - b $ar{u}$
Dark				•		"	$k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ - \bar{a}			•	"	$kar{a}$ n
\mathbf{Dog}				•		,,	n - $kw\bar{\imath}$			•	"	лан ī-kī
\mathbf{Dream}						,,	$yoldsymbol{ar{c}}mar{c}$			·	"	
Drink						,,	tūm.		•		"	yū m mā tū
Eat						,,	$dhar{a}$.				"	
Feather	•				_	,,	$\frac{-}{am}$.		•		"	da
Flower		•			٠	,,	$tar{a}par{a}$				"	am
Hair						,,	\underline{dh} ony			•	"	$opp_{\vec{n}}$
Horn						,,	$rar{o}$.		•	•	,,	$d\hat{u}m$
Pig						,,	ba- li	•	•	•	**	a - $r\bar{u}$
Slave		,						•	•	•	**	$m{illy}m{ ilde{t}}$
Snake						;;	m-po	•	•	•	***	$m{p}ar{a}$
ыцако	•	•	•	•	•	,,	tābō .	1	•	•	,,	tab

Tail	•	•	•	•	•	Digāru	la-ming	•	•	•	Dafla	ā-mī
Tree	•		•		٠	"	mā-s āng	•	•	•	"	san
\mathbf{W} ater	•	•	•	•	٠	,,	$mar{a}$ - $char{\imath}$	•	•	•	,,	ishi

Such instances might easily be multiplied. They are strengthened by a certain correspondence in some grammatical features. Thus the Daflā plural suffix ede can be compared with Chulikātā $d\bar{u}$; the personal pronoun of the second person is the same; the plural suffix long in Digāru pronouns agrees with lu in Miri and Daflā. Daflā and Miri agree with Digāru in using a negative suffix, while Mījū, like Aka, prefixes the negative to the verb, and so on.

In many important points, however, Mishmi differs from Abor-Miri, and the points of correspondence just referred to are not of an importance sufficient to prove a close connexion between the two forms of speech.

The difference between Aka and the other dialects of the group is still greater.

Under the influence of strange and radical phonetical laws Aka has assumed a peculiar

languages in the principles regulating the conjugation of verbs. The verb is virtually a noun, and it does not differ for person and number.

There are, however, some minor points in which the North Assam dialects agree with the Himalayan forms of speech.

The numeral $ksh\bar{\imath}$, two, in Aka, seems to agree with Byāngsī $nis\bar{\imath}$, Kanāwarī nish, Sunwār nishi, etc., as to the termination. The suffix chu of the past tense in Aka is perhaps connected with $ch\bar{o}$ and $ch\bar{u}$ in Dārmiyā. The suffix na of the relative participle in Aka and Abor-Miri-Daflā can be compared with $n\bar{a}$ in Yākhā. Similarly the adjective suffix $z\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$, or seu in Aka can be compared with the suffix $ch\bar{u}$ in Māgarī and cho in Chouras'ya. The accusative suffix em, am in Abor-Miri-Daflā, bears a striking resemblance to the m which is added to the articles re and mo in Róng in order to form an accusative. The use of generic prefixes with numerals in Daflā and Miri can be compared with the use of such suffixes in Nēwārī and other Himalayan dialects. It is, however, more closely connected with the use of generic prefixes in the Bodo languages, some Nāgā dialects such as Mikir and Empēō, and the Kuki-Chin group.

In this connexion we may also note that all North Assam dialects, with perhaps the exception of Miju, use the same verb substantive in the formation of a periphrastic present. The various forms of this verb all correspond to Tibetan 'adug-pa, which is used in the same way. Compare further the suffix tu of the present in Yākhā, Limbu, Byāngsī, etc.

The reflexive suffix $sh\bar{u}$, $s\bar{u}$ in Abor-Miri-Daffā should be compared with s in Bāhing, and perhaps also with che in Mikir.

The formation of causals is only known in Daflā and Miri, where the verb 'to do,' ma and $m\bar{o}$, respectively, is suffixed to the principal verb. Compare the causal suffixes mu in Rai, $m\bar{a}t$ in Rong and other dialects. The causal in Aka is probably formed in the same way as in Tibetan.

The causal suffix ma, mō can also be compared with the prefixed ma, man, etc., in the Old Kuki dialects.

The genitive is formed by prefixing the governed to the governing word. Aka often repeats the former by means of a pronominal prefix before the latter. The same is, to some extent, the case in Himalayan dialects, and it is the prevailing principle in the Kuki-Chin group. The genitive suffixes ka in Daflā and Miri, chi, etc., in Aka correspond to forms such as Tibetan kyi, Meithei gi, Bunān gyi, gi, Kanāshī $k\bar{a}$, and so on.

A prefix which occurs in various forms such as a, e, i, o, and u, is apparently used in all dialects, with perhaps the exception of Mijū. It is not like the Burmese prefix a, used to form nouns of action from verbs, but is very common before nouns and adjectives, apparently without adding anything to the meaning. A similar prefix is common in many Himalayan dialects, and in the Nāgā and the Kuki-Chin languages. It is probably by origin a demonstrative or personal pronoun. In Aka it is identical in form with the pronoun of the third person.

Daflā, Miri, and Mishmi make use of a prefix ka before adjectives. In this respect they agree with the dialects of the Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups. In this connexion we may also note that Daflā and Miri agree with Kachin in repeating the last syllable of names of animals before the suffixes of gender.

The suffix of the comparative in Dadā and Miri is $y\bar{a}$, which corresponds to $y\bar{o}$ and $z\bar{o}$ in many Kuki-Chin dialects.

Several other postpositions and suffixes can be traced in other connected dialects. Thus the plural suffix de in Aka, kiding in Miri, $ed\bar{e}$ in Daflā, $d\bar{u}$ in Chulikatā, etc., can be compared with Tibetan dag, Manchāṭī de. The suffixes na, la, etc., of the conjunctive participle in Aka, Daflā, and Miri, should be compared with Tibetan na, nas, la, las, and similar forms in many connected languages. The locative suffix $l\bar{u}$ in Daflā and Miri corresponds to Tibetan la. The Miri future suffix ye corresponds to Byāngsī $y\bar{e}$, and so on. It is not however of any interest to register such details, so long as our knowledge of the North Assam dialects is not more satisfactory. They would, at the utmost, give a very imperfect picture of the actual state of affairs. I therefore confine myself to some remarks on the numerals and the personal pronouns.

The first five numerals are:—

	Aka	Dafl ā	Miri	Chulikātā	Digāru	Mījā
One	ã	akki n	ā-kâ, ā-tēr	$e \cdot k h ar{e}$	ē-khing	ko-mō
Two	$ksh ilde{\imath}$	anyi	$ \bar{a} \cdot ny \bar{i} $	$k\bar{z}$ - ni	$k\pi$ - $y\hat{s}ng$	$kar{a} \cdot ning$
\mathbf{Three}	tzù	a-0 m	\bar{a} - $\bar{u}m$	$k\bar{a}$ - sh	$l:ar{a} ext{-}sar{a}ny$	kā-sām
Four	$pfar{\imath}$ - $rar{\imath}$	a - pl(i)	$(\bar{a}-j)\bar{i}$	$kar{a}$ - p_Pi	$kar{a}$ -pre i	kam-brin
Five	pom	$ar{a}$ -ng($ar{o}$)	$ar{a}$ - $ng\hat{a}$	$m \overline{a}$ - $n g \overline{\iota}$	ากลี-พฤสั	ka -l $ar{\imath}in$

One.—The forms in Daflā, Chulikātā, and Digāru are practically identical. Aka a corresponds to Miriākā, Meithei a-mā, Kachin ai-mā, Dūrgmāliak'-po; Waling akta, etc. Mījū ko-mō perhaps corresponds to Chouras'ya kolo, Bāhing kong, etc. The final mō must be compared with mā in Meithei a-mā, Kachin ai-mā, etc.

Two.—Aka $ksh\bar{\imath}$ is probably derived from knyis, compare Aka $chh\bar{\imath}$, Tibetan nyi fish. The final $sh\bar{\imath}$ should be compared with the termination in Byāngsī $nis\bar{\imath}$, etc. The prefix k is identical with Mishmi $k\bar{a}$ and corresponds to Tibetan g in gnyis, two. Daflā and Miri use a prefix \bar{a} like many Central and Eastern Nāgā dialects.

Three.—Mishmi, and probably also Aka, have a prefix $k\bar{a}$ corresponding to g in Tibetan gsum, three. Daflå and Miri prefix \bar{a} . Compare two.

Four.—All dialects apparently contain a numeral li or ri with a suffix pa or p, corresponding to b in Tibetan bzhi, four; b and bi in the Bodo languages; ba and pa in many Nāgā dialects, and pa in Kuki-Chin. To this p Mishmi prefixes $k\bar{a}$ or kam. The form li or ri also occurs in many Himalayan dialects and in the Assam-Burmese languages, while Tibetan zhi differs.

Five.—Mījū ka-līin seems to correspond to Tibetan lnga with ka prefixed. Aka pom is probably derived from pa-nga. Compare Rāi bhok-pu, five. The prefix pa has already been mentioned with 'four.' $M\bar{a}$ in Chulikatā and Digāru $m\bar{a}-nga$, five, corresponds to the prefix ma in the numeral 'five' in Kachin, Meithei, Lhōtā, Miklai, Thukumi, and most Nāgā Bodo dialects.

The higher numerals twenty, thirty, etc., are formed by prefixing 'two,' 'three,' and so on, to the numeral 'ten' in Aka and Mishmi, while Daflā and Miri suffix the multiplier after the pattern 'tens-two,' 'tens-three,' etc. Tibetan, Kachin, Burmese, Mikir and other dialects agree with Aka and Mishmi, while the Kuki-Chin and most Nāgā languages form their higher numerals in the same way as Daflā and Miri.

I now turn to the personal pronouns.

I.—Aka, Daflā, Miri and Chulikatā have forms which are identical with or derived from Tibetan and Burmese nga. The Digāru pronoun $h\tilde{a}$, I, is probably derived from the same form. Compare Meithei ai and Khoirāo hai. It is probable that the forms beginning with h are due to an aspiration of the initial ng corresponding to the aspirated pronunciation of soft consonants in Eastern Tibet. A strong aspiration might well supersede the rest of the consonant in the pronunciation. A similar interchange between ng and h occurs in dialects of Khami. Mījū $k\bar{i}$ corresponds to ge in Manchātī and to $ke\bar{i}$ in the Kuki-Chin languages. Ni, we, in Aka corresponds to Bhrāmu $n\bar{i}$, Kanāshī ni, etc.

Thou.—Daflā, Miri, and Mishmi have the forms $n\hat{a}$ and $ny\hat{a}$, corresponding to Angāmi no and similar forms in numerous Himalayan and Assam-Burmese dialects. Aka $b\bar{a}$ is perhaps connected with $b\bar{a}$ in Sir George Campbell's Hati Garya. Aka $j\ddot{o}$, on the other hand, is probably identical with Tibetan khyod, which is locally pronounced $chh\ddot{o}$.

The preceding remarks will have shown that there is considerable difference between the various North Assam dialects. The position which they all and individually each of them occupy with reference to other Tibeto-Burman languages is also complex and cannot be brought under one simple formula. There are numerous points of agreement now with one, now with another group of dialects. The home of the North Assam tribes may be considered as a kind of backwater. The eddies of the various waves of Tibeto-Burman immigration have swept over it and left their stamp on the dialects. On the whole, however, the North Assam forms of speech can be described as links which connect the Tibetan and Himalayan dialects with the languages of the Bodo, Nāgā, Kuki-Chin and Kachin groups.

AKÁ OR HRUSSO.

The Akas occupy the hills to the north of the Assam valley, between Bhutan in the west and the Dafla hills in the east. The Buruli river forms the boundary between them and the last named country. We do not know how far they extend towards the north.

The tribe is called Aka or Angka by its neighbours. They call themselves Hrusso and Tenae. They are divided into two clans which the Assamese call Hazarikhowa, eaters of a thousand (hearths), and Kapās-chōr, cotton thieves. Among themselves they distinguish about ten minor clans.

The whole tribe is said to number about 230 families. Twenty speakers of Aka were returned from Darrang during the preliminary operations of the Linguistic Survey. At the last Census of 1901 the same number was returned from Darrang. Six speakers were enumerated in other districts, so that the Assam total was 26.

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I am indebted to the Rev. Russel Payne for a list of standard words and phrases and a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son in Aka. The text of the parable has been forwarded in an incomplete form, because the Aka chief through whose assistance the translation was being prepared disappeared before the completion of the work. It was, therefore, impossible to accompany the text with an interlinear translation, and the text itself is also far from being satisfactory. It has, however, proved impossible to procure new specimens, and I have, therefore, tried to translate the text as best I could. Both text and translation are given with the utmost reserve. I have not ventured to correct the text from the scanty materials at my disposal, and I have made very little use of it for the grammatical sketch. On the other hand, I did not feel my-self justified in leaving it out altogether. The study of Aka is attended with so great difficulties that it is of importance to record all materials which are available for the elucidation of this dialect.

The remarks on Aka grammar which follow are based on the list of words, and on an analysis of the lists published by Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson; see Authorities, above.

Pronunciation.—The best rendering of the various sounds of the Aka dialect seems to be that given by the Rev. C. H. Hesselmeyer. The spelling in the other texts is very inconsistent.

E and i are constantly interchanged; thus, kse and kshi, two; pferi and firi, four; e and i, he; me and mi, fire. Eu is apparently written for i in ba-theu, thy, in the parable.

 \hat{A} , the sound of a in 'all,' is usually written a and o in the specimens; thus, nga, na, nah, and ngna, for $n\hat{a}$, I; ela for $el\hat{a}$, under; seiya and seiyo, his, etc. The sound \hat{a} is probably also meant in rukhri, rawkhri, and reukh, to watch, to tend.

 \ddot{O} is written a and eu; thus, jah for $j\ddot{o}$, you; stheu for $sth\ddot{o}$, nine.

 \ddot{u} has been rendered in different ways. Mr. Anderson probably means \ddot{u} with his \dot{u} which he describes as a guttural u. He often writes iu and ui instead. The Rev. C. H. Hesselmeyer usually writes \ddot{u} . In other places we find this sound rendered as e, eu, i, and u; thus, nenna, nina, and $n\ddot{u}na$, man; zu, $tz\dot{u}$, and 'tse, three; nishi, $n\dot{u}$ - $z\dot{u}$, and $n\ddot{u}s\ddot{u}$, nose; upse, upseu, psi, $psi\ddot{u}$, and $psh\ddot{u}$, high; sheu, shi, and $shi\dot{u}$, to strike; gi, giu, gui, and $g\ddot{u}$, to strike.

Short final vowels are apparently sometimes dropped; thus, khes - na, goats, from khesi, a goat; is - ne, he will strike, from $sh\ddot{u}$, to strike, etc. When a final i or \ddot{u} is dropped the preceding consonant is apparently palatalized, and this modified pronunciation seems to be indicated by prefixing an i; thus, a - in for a - ni, a mother; na ish - da for na $sh\ddot{u}da$, they strike, etc.

Concurrent vowels are sometimes contracted; thus, sau, also written seu and sou, from sa-u, child male, son; bou, from ba-u, thy father. In other places the hiatus remains, or euphonic letters such as y and w are inserted; thus, $\bar{a}u$ -ah and $\bar{a}u$ -w- \bar{a} , O father; i-y-au, his father, etc.

An h is often added at the end of a syllable ending in a vowel; thus, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}h$, a cat; nah and $n\acute{a}$, I. Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson do not use h in this way, and it is probable that it is not pronounced.

The writing of aspirated letters is inconsistent. Thus, we find *chhe* and *che*, to say; *khak-leh* and *khakh-leh*, again; *kheri* and *keri*, young; *bha*, *ba*, and *vo*, an interrogative particle.

The aspirates kh and ph in many words interchange with \underline{kh} , h, and pf, f, respectively. Thus, mu-khu and muhu, male; khu, $\underline{kh}u$, and hu, water; phum and pfumu, five; phu- $gr\bar{a}$ and fu- $gr\bar{a}$, horse, etc. Ph is apparently always pronounced as f or pf, while kh sometimes is the aspirated k and sometimes the spirant \underline{kh} , like the ch in German 'ich' or 'ach.' This latter pronunciation must be supposed wherever kh interchanges with h, and I have, therefore, in such cases written \underline{kh} .

Ch, chh, ts, s, t, and th are apparently all interchangeable. Thus, cha, chha, tsa, and sa, to eat; enicha and enisa, near; ke-chü and ke-ti, hair; na-chhi, na-thi, and na-ti, my, etc. 'To speak' is thien in Mr. Anderson's list, and che or chhe in the parable. The tha in bho-na thaddu ettheu-e-khu, pigs eaten (?) husks, is probably identical with cha, tsa, sa, to eat.

J is interchangeable with dz; thus, ji and dzi, give. The occasional writings ds and tz probably denote the pronunciation dz; thus, ju and dsu, sun; zu and tzu, three. The latter word is given as 'tse by Mr. Hesselmeyer. And we also find interchange between hard and soft consonants in other cases; thus, sikzi and 'ksi, eight; nza, 'nsu, and ntzu, mouth; sza, 'sse, and ssu, iron. The hard sound is, in all these instances, given by Mr. Hesselmeyer. In the parable we find sipzi, sibji, and subji, to make merry, and in the list of words printed below ve-tchu and jya, give, and so forth. Such

instances point to the aspirated pronunciation of soft initials which is current in Eastern Tibet where g, d, b, j, and dz are hardly distinguishable from the corresponding hard sounds. This tendency is still more developed in the Assam-Burmese languages where most soft initials have become hardened. Aka has apparently in most cases preserved the original soft initials, but the instances quoted above show that the development from soft to hard sounds has also begun in that dialect.

Sh and s are sometimes interchanged; thus, ni-shi and nü-sü, nose; kshi and kse, two. Sz in sza, iron, probably denotes an emphatic s. Messrs. Hesselmeyer and Anderson give 'sse and ssù, respectively.

A k before sibilants has apparently a tendency to be dropped; thus, kshi and $sh\ddot{u}$, gold. We may, therefore, infer that a prefix k has been lost in the numeral zu, 'tse (Hesselmeyer), or $tz\dot{u}$ (Anderson), three. Compare Tibetan gsum.

B and v are sometimes interchanged; thus, in the imperative prefix be or ve, and in the interrogative particle ba or vo. This points to a bi-labial rather than a labiodental pronunciation of v.

M and n interchange in phumia and phun-ge, behind, mi-kzeu and nkzeu, bad. The change seems to be euphonic.

Ng, gn, and n are sometimes interchanged; thus, nga, na, and $n\tilde{a}$, I; gne-thau, and ne-thau, country; ngya, gne, and nie, house.

Several other instances of interchange may be collected from the texts. It is, however, impossible to classify them, and we do not know enough of the dialect to go into further details.

We have no information as to whether Aka possesses tones like Daflā and other neighbouring dialects.

Prefixes.—An otiose prefix a, e, or u, is frequently used in nouns and adjectives. Thus, $\bar{a}u$, father; \bar{a} -lu, brother; e-ni, eye; e- $s\hat{a}$, flesh; e-ni-sa, near; e-mie, old; u- $psh\ddot{u}$ and e- $psh\ddot{u}$, high. It is probably identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person; compare e-phun-ge, behind; ba-phum-iya, behind you; e-bra-ge, before; na-bra, before me. Compare Tibetan a in a-ma, mother; a-jo, elder brother.

The prefix na in na-phun, wife; na-sau, son, etc., is perhaps the possessive pronoun of the first person.

Several other prefixes seem to occur. I have not, however, succeeded in analysing them.

There are no **Articles.** The numeral \bar{a} , one, is used as an indefinite article; thus, $n\ddot{u}$ -na \bar{a} , a man. A- $b\bar{a}$ is sometimes used in the same way; thus, phu- $gr\bar{a}$ a- $b\bar{a}$, a horse. The prefix e and the demonstrative pronouns may also be translated by means of the English articles. Thus, e-mi-mi, a woman; $sitch\dot{u}$ $h\acute{a}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ khisi \bar{a} -nye $s\bar{a}$ -m-do- $d\bar{a}$, tiger they goat many eat, tigers eat goats; si- $tch\dot{u}$ $h\acute{a}$ -e $n\acute{a}$ $sh\bar{u}$ -nye, tiger that I shoot-will, I will shoot a tiger; $h\acute{a}$ $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ $dz\ddot{u}$ - $d\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$, that man dying is, the man is dying. It will be seen from these instances that a demonstrative pronoun is often used where we would prefer the indefinite article. The reason is that the Akas, like other uncivilised tribes, have a much more concrete and vivid conception of the outer world than we.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. Different words are frequently used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus, $\bar{a}u$, father; \bar{a} -ni, mother: \bar{a} -lu, elder brother; \bar{a} -ma, elder sister: mu- $\underline{kh}u$, male being;

mi-mi, woman. U and mi are used as suffixes in order to distinguish the gender; thus, sau, son; $s\bar{a}$ -mi or $s\bar{a}m$, daughter. U is probably identical with the word for 'father.' Sir George Campbell gives a-boa, father, and u is probably derived from bo or pho; compare Tibetan pha. Pho is used as a male suffix in the parable in kheri sa-pho, young child-male, younger son. Mi is probably identical with ui, mother. Compare the Tibetan female article ma, and mi in Burmese tha-mi, daughter.

The words mu- $\underline{kh}u$, male, and mi-mi, female, are used in a similar way; thus, mu- $\underline{kh}u$ $s\bar{a}$, male child; mi-mi $s\bar{a}$, female child.

The names of animals are often preceded by a prefix fu; thus, $fu-lu-\underline{kh}u$, cow; fu-mu, buffalo: $fu-gr\bar{a}$, horse. This prefix must be compared with prefixes such as sa, ta, ma, etc., in other Tibeto-Burman languages before names of animals, and has nothing to do with the distinction of gender. Thus, $fu-gr\bar{a}^1$ is 'animal-horse.'

The usual suffixes for distinguishing the gender of animals are $b\bar{u}$, male, and $n\bar{\iota}$, female, to which em, am, or um is often prefixed; thus, \bar{a} - $sh\bar{a}$ em- $b\bar{u}$, cat male; \bar{a} - $sh\bar{a}$ em- $n\bar{\iota}$, cat female: $s\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{o}$ um- $b\bar{u}$, a dog; $s\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{o}$ $am\bar{\iota}$ - $n\bar{\iota}$, a bitch. Other suffixes are urba, huga, glo, and rau, male, and jachu, female. Thus, fu-lu-khu urba or am- $b\bar{u}$, an ox; fu-lu-khu jachu, a cow: va huga, a boar; va $n\bar{\iota}$, a sow: khisi glo or khisi um- $b\bar{u}$, a hegoat; dam-rau, a cock, etc.

Number.—Number is, when necessary, denoted by means of numerals, or by adding some word conveying the idea of multitude, such as de, all (?); \bar{a} -nye, and annia, many; thus, $\bar{a}u$ \bar{a} -nye, fathers; fu- $gr\bar{a}$ anniya, horses; bo-de lo-kho-de, goods, and so forth. I cannot analyse the plural suffixes in mi-mi ji-ju u, woman all (?) good, good women; na-re \bar{u} $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$, to good men; sleh (i.e., $s\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{o}$) ne-phe, dogs. The last mentioned suffix ne-phe is perhaps a demonstrative pronoun. Plurality is often indicated by adding plural pronouns. Thus, $sitch\dot{u}$ $h\dot{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, tiger those, tigers; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ $f\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}$, man those, men; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ \bar{u} $n\bar{a}$ -chi, man good them-of, of good men; khes- $n\bar{a}$, goat they, goats; $s\bar{a}m$ ni, daughter them-to, to daughters, and so on. Ja $\bar{a}u$, fathers, seems to mean your father(s).

Case.—The subject and the direct and indirect object are not, as a rule, marked by the addition of any suffix. An i or e is, however, often added. Thus, se-e hānya, that what, what is that? si-tchù hâ-e nâ shī-nye, tiger that I shoot will; sapse-za ne-na-v-i ba-lain, servant man (he) called; eioi (i.e., e-y-u-i) chhuin, his-father-to (he) said; sām-eh, to a daughter, and so on. Nā-i, them to, is contracted to nai or ni; thus, ná nai khu me ji-m-bie, I them water some gave; sapse-khiri ni che-ne, servant them-to said, he said to the servants. Compare the corresponding suffix a in Daflā and Miri.

The genitive is often expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, fu- $gr\bar{a}$ gro dsimie (Hesselmeyer), horse white saddle, the saddle of the white horse. The governed noun is, however, usually repeated by means of a pronoun. Thus, bau e-ni-ya mu-khu- $s\bar{a}$ ke-nia da, thy-father his-house-in male-child how-many are? how many sons are there in your father's house? suin e- $l\hat{a}$, tree it's-bottom, under the tree; fu- $gr\bar{a}$ grou saio zin, horse white its saddle, the saddle of the white horse.

A genitive suffix chhi, chi, thi, or ti occurs in forms such as nga-chhi, my; āu-ti, of a father, and so on.

The vocative may be marked by adding \bar{a} ; thus, $\bar{a}u$ -w- \bar{a} , O father.

¹ Mr. Anderson gives phu-gorā, and adds that the word is borrowed from Assamese. But gorā or grā is probably identical with Bârâ go-rai; Lushêi sa-ko-r, and similar forms in other connected languages. It contains the root range which occurs in the words for 'borse' in most Indo-Chinese languages.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are gu, ge, and ga, i.e., $g\ddot{u}$, in; se, in; din and goyo, from; $e-l\acute{a}$, under; bra and vra, before; phum-ia, behind; lure-du-ge, inside in; lure-du-goio, inside from; a or ia, in, with, and so on.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are often followed by a suffix which is written $z\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$, and seu; thus, $e ext{-}m\bar{\imath} ext{-}z\bar{a}$, thin; $\bar{a} ext{-}kh\bar{a} ext{-}z\bar{a}$ and $\bar{a} ext{-}kh\bar{a} ext{-}s\bar{a}$, alone, a single; $khe ext{-}ri ext{-}seu$, young. It is probably a verbal suffix; compare the suffix $s\bar{o}$, chha, or chho of the past tense, and the corresponding use of the suffix $t\bar{a}$ in Lushēi and connected languages. The suffix $s\bar{a}$ seems to occur in the parable in sei $gne ext{-}theu$ $a ext{-}brew$ noko essami $\bar{a}kh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ duse laledebi. Mr. Anderson gives $nuku\bar{a}$, rich, and I have, therefore, combined $no ext{-}ko ext{-}ess\bar{a}$ as an adjective qualifying mi, a man. $\bar{A}kh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ corresponds to Mr. Anderson's $\bar{a} ext{-}kh\bar{a} ext{-}z\bar{a}$, alone, and is used as an indefinite article. I translate the sentence 'that country in (?) rich man a that-with joined, he went and joined a rich man in that country.'

Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify; thus, $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$ \ddot{u} , a good man; \ddot{u} $n\ddot{u}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, good men. A suffix na is sometimes added; thus, e- $m\ddot{i}$ - $s\ddot{a}$ -na gnya, small-being house, the small house; khe-ri-seu-na sau, young-being son, the younger son. Such forms must be considered as relative participles. Adjectives are freely combined with verbal suffixes; compare verbs.

The suffix of the comparative is $f\tilde{a}$, also written $ph\tilde{a}$, phou, pheye, and phau. Thus, $e-n\ddot{u}-mi$ i-ama $psh\ddot{u}-ph\acute{a}-d\ddot{a}$, his brother is taller than his sister; $m\bar{i}m$ $h\acute{a}w\bar{i}$ $mu\underline{k}hu$ $psh\ddot{u}-ph\acute{a}$, woman that man tall more, man is taller than woman; ke dedue seioh ge u-phou, clothes all them in good-more, the best cloth. Goyo is used as a particle of comparison in $h\acute{a}$ $n\acute{a}$ goyo $bog\bar{o}$ pheye $umdod\bar{a}$, this soil than that more good-is.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. They are not combined with generic particles.

 \bar{A} , one, corresponds to \bar{a} in Miri, a- $m\bar{a}$ in Meithei, ai in Singphō, etc. \bar{A} - $kh\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$, alone, seems to be a fuller form of the numeral; compare Daflā akkin-gi, Digāru \bar{e} -khing, Chulikatā e- $kh\bar{e}$. An instance has already been given of the use of \bar{a} - $kh\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}$ as an indefinite article. The final $s\bar{a}$ is probably the same suffix as has been mentioned under the head of adjectives.

Kshi, two, corresponds to Tibetan gnyis; compare Aka chhi, Tibetan nyi, fish. Sir George Campbell gives gu-ni. Compare also Sunwār nishi and similar forms in other Himalayan languages.

Zu, three, is written $tz\hat{u}$ by Mr. Anderson and 'tse by Mr. Hesselmeyer. Zu probably represents the pronunciation $dz\ddot{u}$. It probably contains a prefix k corresponding to g in Tibetan gsum, three. Compare the forms kshi and $sh\ddot{u}$, gold.

Firi, four, corresponds to Digāru kāprei, Bârâ brè, and similar forms in other Bodo languages. Compare the form fali, li in Lepcha, Kuki-Chin, and Kachin; le in Burmese; bli in Māgarī, and so on.

Phum or pfumu is probably derived from pa-nga and contains the usual numeral nga. Sir George Campbell gives bu-ngu. Similar forms occur in all other Tibeto-Burman languages; thus Rengmā Nāgā $pf\ddot{u}$ and $p\bar{u}ng$, five.

The higher numerals are formed by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten.' Thus, $dz\dot{u}-r\dot{u}$ (Anderson), thirty; phumu-ru, fifty. Bi-sha, twenty, is borrowed. It also occurs in Dimāsā.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns,— $ny\tilde{a}$ or $n\tilde{a}$, I. ba, thou. e or i, he, she, it. ni, we. $j\ddot{o}$ or ze, you. $n\ddot{a}$, they.

 $N\vec{a}$ is also written nga, and the initial was originally ng; compare Tibetan and Burmese nga, $ng\bar{a}$. Phu, I, in No. 162 is probably a pronoun with the meaning 'self.' It is also combined with other personal pronouns; thus, ngi-phu, we, jah-phu, thou. 'We' is ni or ngi; compare Bhrāmu $ng\bar{a}$, I; $n\bar{\imath}$, we.

 $B\bar{a}$, thou, also occurs in the meaning 'you.' A similar form ba-mi, thou, is found in the Lyng-ngam dialect of Khassi. Another pronoun of the second person occurs in do-goio, of thee. $J\ddot{o}$, $j\ddot{o}\text{-}e$ or ze, you, is also written jah. Jah-phu occurs with the meaning 'thou.'

The personal pronoun of the third person is originally a demonstrative pronoun, and other demonstratives such as $f\ddot{o}$ and $h\tilde{a}$ may be used in the same way. In the plural we find $ng\ddot{a}$ and $n\ddot{a}$, which may be added to other demonstratives; thus, $f\ddot{o}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, $h\acute{a}$ - $n\ddot{a}$, they, and probably also b'gou- $n\ddot{a}$ (Hesselmeyer), they; compare $n\ddot{a}$ $\ddot{a}u$ bugia e-mi-sa-na ngya ga re-da, my father that small house in lives; $h\ddot{a}$ $n\ddot{a}$ goyo $bog\ddot{o}$ pheye u-m-do- $d\ddot{a}$, that soil from this more good-is, this soil is better than that. B'gou, bu-gia, or bo- $g\ddot{o}$ thus seems to be a demonstrative pronoun pointing to something in sight. Rasa, their, only occurs in the list. A pronoun du, he, she, it, seems to occur in forms such as du-ge, him-to; du-se, him-with.

The personal pronouns are combined with the usual case suffixes; thus, $ng\hat{a}$ -ge, in, of me; ba-chhi, of thee; $j\ddot{o}$ -goio, from you, of you, etc. From sai, that, he, we find seiya and saio, his.

Demonstrative pronouns are sai, this, that; $bo-g\bar{o}$, that (near); $pf\bar{o}$, $f\bar{o}$, be, that; $h\hat{a}$, that; khai, that. In the plural $n\bar{a}$ is added; thus, $h\hat{a}-n\bar{a}$, those.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are formed by adding the suffix na; thus, kheri-seu-na sau, younger-being son, the son who was youngest.

Demonstrative pronouns are often used as a kind of correlative; thus, ke dedue seioh ge u-phou sei lai-neh seh, cloth all those of good-more that taking put on, bring the best cloth and put it on him.

Interrogative pronouns are juah, zu, or ze, i.e., probably zü or zö, who? han, ha, or haniah, what? han-do, why? ki-nia or khi-nia, how much? how many?

Verbs.—Verbs do not change for gender, number, and person.

The usual verb substantive is du, $d\tilde{a}$, or $d\tilde{a}$. Compare the corresponding forms in Miri and connected languages. This verb is frequently used as an auxiliary verb, as is also the case in Dafla, Miri, and Mishmi.

Present time.—The root alone is often used without any suffix. Thus, chhi $\underline{kh}u$ -gu riu, fish water-in live, fishes live in the water.

A, e, and i, all probably different spellings of a verb substantive, are often added; thus, $i\,du$ -a (Hesselmeyer), he is; $ba\,gu$ -eh, thou strikest; khusu $sherie\,ts\bar{a}$ -i (Anderson), goat grass eats, the goat eats grass. We is sometimes used instead of e; thus, $n\tilde{a}$ niu $lukshu gr\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ -we, my house's roof rotten-is; masu $n\bar{a}$ ru-jo-we, birds they fly. I cannot decide whether the w is euphonic or whether we is the fuller form. Compare Burmese $\bar{\imath}$, Kachin ai; Kuki-Chin \bar{a} , e, and ai; Nāgā e and we, and so on.

Ni or ne, probably another verb substantive, is often used in the same way; thus, nah gi-neh, i.e. $n\hat{a}$ g\vec{u}-ne, I strike; nah guin, i.e. $n\hat{a}$ g\vec{u}-n(i), I am striking. \bar{A} or e is sometimes added to this ni; thus, ba ni-ni han che-ni\vec{a}, thy name what call? what is thy name? $n\hat{a}$ kh\vec{a}-nie, I go.

A suffix $b\bar{\imath}$, be, or buch, i.e., probably $b\ddot{u}$, is often used in the present tense. Thus, ba $kh\bar{a}$ -buch, thou goest; $n\acute{a}$ $g\ddot{u}$ -m- $b\bar{\imath}$ (Hesselmeyer), I strike; nah kha-ne-be, I go. This suffix is probably identical with Tibetan pa, ba. The m in $g\ddot{u}$ -m- $b\bar{\imath}$ is perhaps an assertive or participial suffix.

Chho or chha occurs in forms such as $ni\ du$ -chho, we are; $na\ du$ -chha-y-a, they are. The $m\bar{a}$ in $ba\ du$ -cha- $m\bar{a}$, thou art, should be compared with Róng ma, and similar suffixes in connected dialects. Compare the m in $g\ddot{u}$ -m- $b\bar{\iota}$, above.

The corresponding form of the verb substantive is $d\hat{a} - d\hat{a}$, etc., and this form is also used in order to form a periphrastic present. Thus, $si - ch\hat{u}$ $h\hat{a} - n\bar{a}$ $kh\hat{u}s\hat{u}$ $\bar{a} - nye$ $s\bar{a} - m - d\hat{a} - d\hat{a}$, tiger they goat many eat, tigers eat goats; $h\hat{a}$ $nenn\bar{a}$ $z\hat{u} - \bar{a}n - d\bar{a} - d\bar{a}$, that man to-die-preparing-is, the man is dying.

De in $ng\bar{a}h$ kha-de-be, they go, is probably identical with $d\hat{a}$, etc.

Past time.—There is no marked difference between the present and past times. The root alone is also used to denote the past; thus, $e \ n\acute{a} \ shi\grave{u}$, i.e., $sh\ddot{u}$, him I struck; $e \ n\acute{a} \ m\ddot{a} \ sh\ddot{u}$, him I not struck.

Ni or ne occurs in forms such as che-ne, he said; $n\acute{a}$ di-n, I went; $n\acute{a}$ gùing, I struck, and so on.

Bi is very often used in the past tense; thus, $n\acute{a}$ $n\~{a}$ -i $\underline{kh}u$ me ji-m-bie, I them-to water some gave; la-le-de-bi, he joined; ni kha-m-bi, we went; kha- $\underline{kh}u$ -da-bi, he went

The suffix m in ji-m-bi-e, gave, is also used in connexion with other suffixes; thus, i du-me-re-de, he was; la-khe-ri-me-re-de, he gathered; kha-ri-meh-re-ze, he divided. Me and meh in these forms is probably identical with m. We find this suffix used alone in forms such as ma-kha-meh, he did not enter; $h\bar{a}$ -deo di-m- $v\bar{o}$, why came-interrogative-particle, why have you come? The $m\bar{a}$ in forms such as ba di- $m\bar{a}$, thou wentest; jah $khamm\bar{a}$, you went, is perhaps the same suffix.

The chu in nah du-chu, they were, is probably connected with the suffix $ch\bar{o}$, $ch\bar{u}$ in Dārmiyā, etc. In phu-e du-chun, I was, it has been combined with n(i). Jah-phu du-chha-mā, thou wast, should be compared with du-cha-mā, art. The form nah gui-chhua, I was striking, I had struck, seems to show that the suffix is not chu but chō or chū. Mr. Hesselmeyer gives sō and se; thus, nā du-sō, I was; nā khab-se, I went. Compare Dārmiyā sō.

The verb substantive is used in forms such as $i \, sda$, i.e. $i \, sh\ddot{u} - d\bar{a}$, he struck; $jah \, ish - da$, you struck; $ngah \, kha - de - bi$, they went. Gri - dain, he has married, probably contains the verb dau or deu, to make.

A suffix lai occurs in forms such as $nenn\bar{a}$ $phie-n\bar{a}$ $d\bar{i}$ -lai, men those came, the men have come; sei- $\underline{kh}e$ -lain, he smelt, he kissed; ba-lain, he asked (?); bah bangin dau-da-lain, thou feast madest.

The suffix of the **Future** is *nie* or *nye*, also written $ny\bar{a}$. Thus, nd $g\ddot{u}$ -nie, I shall strike; e $n\acute{a}$ shi- $ny\bar{a}$, him I strike-will. Ne is often used instead, and this form is probably identical with the corresponding form for the present and past times. Thus, ngah

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sne, i.e. nā shū-ne, they will strike. Bi may be added; thus, kha-ne-bi, I will go; sip-zeu-sip-zi-ne-bi, we will be merry and glad, let us make merry.

Another suffix of the future is ve; thus, chha-veh, I will say; ba sheue, i.e. ba shu-ve, thou wilt strike. Compare present.

The root alone is also used as an **Imperative**. Thus, $khu-niù d\bar{\imath}$, quickly come; shù me jiù, firewood some bring; la, take. A suffix e, we, or bueh is often added; thus, $z\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $d\bar{a}$ -we, rice cook; age-lao-y-e, take; cha-bueh, eat.

In gi-gueh, strike, the root is apparently reduplicated.

A suffix chhe occurs in la-chhe, take.

A prefix bi, be, $b\ddot{u}$, or ve occurs in several forms; thus, bi-di- $b\bar{\imath}$, go; be-shiù, strike; $b\ddot{u}$ - $dz\ddot{u}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$, die; ve-tchu, give. It will be seen that it is sometimes combined with a suffix $b\bar{\imath}$. In $n\ddot{a}$ be- $sh\bar{\imath}$ -shù-bù, me strike, this suffix has taken the form bù, the preceding $sh\dot{\imath}$ probably corresponding to the reflective particle $sh\bar{u}$ in Daflā and Miri.

A suffix in occurs in plural forms such as leh-in and da-in, put ye.

The root alone is also used as a Verbal noun. Thus, há phurdie lā-le-niù siunī siū di-we, that axe taking tree to-cut go; ī sùrù lā-le-niù masù biū di-dye, he gun taking bird to-shoot went.

A suffix deu or due, probably derived from the verb deu or dau, to do, is used in the parable in forms such as sa-deu, to eat; rukri-deu, to tend; bjiva-deu, dancing (?); thu-mah-da-deu, to feast. It is probably identical with du in thaddu, food.

A suffix bu occurs in forms such as sibji-de-bu, to make merry; che-bue, to call. Gi-phi-neh, to strike, seems to contain another suffix phi of the future tense. The same form is also translated 'I may beat' in the list. Mr. Anderson has $n\hat{a}$ didjiu $d\bar{a}-ph\bar{i}$ $zu-b\bar{a}-niu$, I work to-do understand.

Participles.—The relative participle has been mentioned with relative pronouns. Viddeu, a cultivator, and kishi-rakkhru, a goat-tender, are nouns of agency, and seem to contain a suffix u. Another suffix ba occurs in $dokh\bar{a}n-ba$, a shopkeeper; compare the Tibetan article pa, ba.

Adverbial participles are apparently formed by adding di-neh; thus, u-di-neh, well; kho-lo-di-neh, as a servant. The real suffix is probably neh, $ny\acute{a}$, or $ny\grave{u}$; compare khu- $ny\acute{a}$ or khu- $ny\ddot{u}$ quickly. In the Parable we find khu-tho-neh, quickly, containing a suffix tho which is probably identical with the suffix di in u-di-neh, well. Compare deu or dau, to do.

The suffix $ni\ddot{u}$ is also used in order to form a conjunctive participle. It has been written in various ways, as $ny\grave{u}$, niya, neh, etc. Thus, $n\acute{a}$ $baz\~ar$ $goy\~u$ $di-ny\~u$ $\'alg\~u$ $l\~alien$. I bazaar from going rice brought; h'a $gi\~u$ h'a-e $dokh\=an$ -ba $goy\~u$ $ph\~u$ - $ni\~u$ $l\~alien$, that cloth that shopkeeper from buying brought, I bought that cloth from a shopkeeper; zuiya phu-niya la-vah, whom-from buying took, from whom did you buy it? dinneh, having come out; zi-niah, having died.

Le is often prefixed to $ni\ddot{u}$; thus, $l\ddot{a}$ -le- $ni\grave{u}$, having taken, with; gi-le-neh, having struck; kha-thi-le-neh, having gone; khu-zu-linge, having arisen.

Leh is sometimes used in the same way; thus, ma-hou-ze-chi-leh, having been lost; khakh-leh, having gone, again.

Nyü and le are probably identical with the Tibetan suffixes nas and lus.

Other participles are che-da-re, having said; kha-me-bi, gone; khá-khu-mc, having seen; dī-phi-li, having gone, etc.

Many Compound verbs occur, but I have not been able to analyse them. Chi or thi seems to intensify the meaning; thus, kha-thi-le-neh, having gone; ma-hou-ze-chi-leh, having been lost. It is perhaps, however, only a suffix of the past.

<u>Kh</u>u is added in many verbs; thus, <u>kh</u>a-<u>kh</u>u, to go; <u>kho-kh</u>u, to see; ma-cha-<u>kh</u>u, did not eat, and so forth. It does not seem to add anything to the meaning.

Mr. Anderson gives $shi\bar{u}$, i.e. $sh\ddot{u}$, to kill, which is a causal of $dz\ddot{u}$, to die. It corresponds to Tibetan causals after the type intransitive initial g, causative kh.

There is no **Passive voice**. Nah gi-dah, i.e. ná gü-dā, I am struck, literally means my striking-is; nah singeh bua, I shall be struck, seems to be miswritten for ná shù-ne-ùa, me (he) will-strike. I do not understand suyā in nah gidah suyā, I was struck. It probably means 'then'; compare khe-yā, when?

The **Negative particle** is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$ or m; thus, e $n\acute{a}$ $m\bar{a}$ - $sh\ddot{u}$, him I not struck; $m\bar{a}$ -dzi, gavest-not; mikzeu, bad. N is substituted for m in nkzeu, bad; compare Pronunciation.

The Interrogative particles are vo, va, ba, or bha, and $m\tilde{a}$; thus, $b\tilde{a}$ $l\tilde{u}$ $h\tilde{a}n$ $vie-d\tilde{a}$ -vo, thy mind what thinking-is? zuiya phu-niya la-vah, whom-from being took, from whom did you buy it? phu- $gr\tilde{a}$ adiat ki-nia-ba, horse old how-much, how old is this horse? khai ha-da-rin-bha, that what-is? $l\tilde{u}j\tilde{u}$ $s\tilde{a}$ - $m\tilde{a}$, breakfast ate, have you eaten breakfast? The interrogative particle is often dropped when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. Thus, ba ni-ni han che-ni-a, thy name what say, what is your name?

The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

AKA.

(The Rev. Russel Payne, 1900.)

(DARRANG.)

Ni-nā ā sei-va kshe. Khe-ri-seu-na mu-khu seigh sau Man him-to male childstwo. Younger-being one 80n hiseioi chhuin, 'āu-wā, bo-lo-kho no-je (i.e. nâ-chhi) ba bo-dau sei father-to said. father-O. thy goods-of myshare that bo-de-lo-kho-de \mathbf{no} zā.' Taleneh khari-meh-re-ze namkhor-se. Khe-ri-sa-pho give. Then me goodsdividedthem-to. Younger-son seih bo-lo-kho i la-khe-ri-me-re-de, utka la-khe-ri-le-neh e-ra-geh ne-theu that qoods he gathered. all(?)collected-having country kha-thi-le-neh ta-le-neh seiyah nenna mikzeu na ā-ge bo-se-nāh gone-having then therebad them joining(?) property (?) one-to men sai khazin. Ta-le-neh seiyah utka khats-me-re-deh sei ne-thu that squandered. Then thereall(?)squandered thatcountry that ma-theu-ma-bho di-ne. Sei sa-deu thu-deu ma-theu-ma-bho di-ne. Sei in-want became. Heeat-to drink-to wanting became. That noko-essa-mi gne-theu abrew ā-khā-sā du-se la-le-de-bi. Sei bho country rich-man one him-with joined. Hispigs rukri-deu-se khak-din. Sei bho-na thaddu e-ttheu-e-khu sei sa-ngeh tend-to qo-made. Hepigs food(?)husks thateat-would ta-ha-li-na ma-sak-deh. Seiah itchhedaukhein, seioh i-tchin, 'seioh but not-ate-even. Then thoughtmade, thenhe-said, 'there father's(?) chha-due thu-deu titu ania annia-du, nah i ma-cha-khu, Ya servants(?) many eat-to drink-to much-is, I herehunger. Now nah etthi e-ni-ge kha-ne-bi gna dinna āu-i chha-veh. Ι father him-of near go-will I(?)going(?) father-to say-will, "āu-ah, nah aioh osra i-vra sei nah da-da; nkzeu nah "father-O, I fatherheaven(?)before there I evildid; I ba-seu ngah che-bue aiah-nah deu ma-da-phi; noi ba gneu thy-son call-to now-as not-worthy; more(?)me thy house kho-lo-di-ne la." Se-nah che-da-re ku-zu-linge iv-au itchh-ge khahin. keep." servant-as Thus arising(?) saying ${\it his-father}$ him-of-to E-ra-geh re-da sei ey-eu kho-khu-li-neh nilvo-di-ne, i kho-khuin, Far his-father was then him saw, seeing loved, nilvo-ve-le-neh lu-khro-neh khu-tho-neh jeh-zeu sei enro iyah loving pitying quickly ranhisneck that-on sei-khe-lain. Sei e-sou i chhain, 'āu-āh, ba-theu e-ni-siai nah smelt (kissed). That his-son himsaid, '.father-O, thy eye-in I

lāla dahing, iyah ba-seu ngeh chem-jeh ba ne-thi ungo ma-da-ni.' sindid, andthy-son $to \cdot call$ me thou not-proper-is. Kina-di-neh sapse-khiri-ni che-ne, aiveu 'ke de-due seioh-ge Buthis-father servants-to `clothssaid, allthem-among u-phou sei lai-neh seh. ekji-ze sei githleh lehin. eksi good-more that bringing put-on, his-finger that-on ring put, his-foot ge-deh sitba da-in; iyah chha-le-neh thu-le-neh sip-zeu-sip-zi-ne-bi; on-also shoes put; now eating drinking merry-be-let-us; āngāsā seih ze-le-neh, seiyah khak-leh chhe-neh; sei ma-hou-ze-chi-leh. child this died-having, now alive-is; again helost-being, chhe-da-bi.' Syah nah sibji-de-bu da-da-bi. found-again.' Thenthey to-make-merry began.

e-sou Sei mo-kau-sei pathari geioh kha-khu-da-bi. Sei i Then his-son elder-that fieldsfromwent. Then he khaueh gneh e-theu kha-khu-da-bi i seioh sedu bjiva-deu house towardsthen camewent hemusic(?)dancing di-khu-lei-neh, seioh i sapse-za-ne-na-vi balain. 'khai hathenpoor-man (a servant) hearing, hecalled, 'this what da-rin-bha?' Seioh i chhe. 'seigh du-ge ba seu-na-keu sai he is-being-done?' Then him-to said. ' there brother thy 'nе bou i kha-khu-da-bi, radz-ni zara geuah.' Seioh lu-chhvi-neh thy-father hehas-come. rejoicing ricegave.' Then he angry-being ni-geh ma-kha-meh; kho-le-neh sei eiyeu dinneh kakati-daueh house-in not-entered; thatseeing his-father coming to-enter Seioh chi-chuin, aivao-ih 'kho-soueh, ngeh-sleain. nah anioah erra Then his-father-to said, ' look, I entreated(?). many years reukhin ma-kha-khu-ru ba nui chera daueh ngeh-sleain, ba anioah thounot-departing(?) observedmeworkdoentreated(?), thy many sidabu-seh bah ukhun ma-zu ma-dai-neh. Tam-deh ba nui years(?)thy command disobeynot-did. Nevertheless thou me ā-deh ma-dzi nah \mathbf{nai} khisi-sah ja nah subji-khiai-neh dākha. one-even not-gavest goat-young to-make-merry. kha-<u>kh</u>u-neh nu-deh dau-khu-lenge seioh Ivah eseu seih aineah khau, Nowthe-son this going done-having thennear came, dau-da-lain.' Seioh itchhin, kseu-deu bah bangin seseioh-i i 'sau. madest.' And thou feast(?) him-for(?)hesaid, 'son, always ba nau-thiai ren. na-sam anioah du khai ba-tchi-khoa; iah thoume-with art, my-property as-much isthat thine; now thu-mah-da-deu ve-dah. Han-deu? ba-seu zi-niah. ngi-phu Why? to-feast proper-is. thy-brother died-having, wekhakh-leh chhe-m-bi; la chhu-m-bi. ba alive-is; thou foundest-again.' again

ABOR-MIRI, AND DAFLA.

Abor, Miri, and Dafla are Assamese names for a tribe which inhabits the mountains between the Assam Valley and Tibet. Many of them, especially of the Miris, are now settled within British territory, in Lakhimpur, Sibsagar, and Darrang.

The tribe has a strong Mongolian type, especially the Abors, who have only in late time begun to settle within British territory.

The Abors occupy the mountains to the north of Sadiya about the Dihang and Dibang rivers. They are apparently a numerous tribe. Mr. Needham remarks that we know of some 20,000, and that we are aware that there are very many more to the north again of those we know of. In British territory there were only some 170 Abors in the Lakhimpur district reported during the preliminary operations of this survey. The corresponding figure at the last Census of 1901 was 357.

The Abors are subdivided into numerous clans or minor tribes. They are at present blockaded by the English, and we have no communication with them.

The Abor dialect is almost identical with Miri. The Pāsī and Mīnyōngs, two other numerous tribes inhabiting the hills on the right bank of the Dihang, also speak the same language. No separate specimens have been given. A list of standard words and phrases in Abor, so far as this dialect differs from Miri, has been kindly prepared by Mr. J. F. Needham and has been printed after the Miri list.

The Miris occupy the hills to the west of the Abors and extend to about 94° north latitude. They have also been settled in the Assam Valley for a long time. They were pushed down by the Abors, and these Miris are generally believed to have been slaves to that tribe. In the Assam Valley they were conquered by the Ahoms.

According to Mr. Needham, the Miris who reside on the banks of the Brahmaputra, Dihang, and Dibang rivers, in the neighbourhood of Sadiya, call themselves Mīshing, and are of the Shaiyāng, Oiyān, Chūtīya, Dāmbūk, and Shōmwāng clans, each of which is divided into numerous sub-divisions. *Mī-shing* means 'a Shing man,' and is identical with *nyī-sing* which name the Daflās use to denote themselves.

The Assamese Miris are now found in Darrang, Nowgong, and, above all, in Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. Their numbers are returned as follows:—

												Census of 1891.	Census of 1901.
Kamrup	•	•	•		•		•						1
Darrang	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•			2,500	3,471
Nowgong	•	•	•		•	•	•	•		•	•	60	1
Sibsagar	•		•	•		•		•		•		14,100	14,752
Lakbimpur	3	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		18,850	22,247
									То	Total .		35,510	40,472

In Darrang they are found in the eastern part of the district, in villages on the Bhareli river, and to the east of it. In Sibsagar Miri is spoken in the north-west corner,

opposite Lakhimpur. In Lakhimpur we find the tribe in the north-east corner and on the north bank of the Brahmaputra.

I am indebted to Mr. J. F. Needham for two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases in the dialect spoken by the Shaiyang clan. With regard to the other clans no specimens have been available. So far as we know, however, all Miris practically speak the same language.

The **Daflās** occupy the hills to the west of the Miris. Sir William Robinson, in his notes on the Daflās, states that they extend from 92° 50′ to about 94° north latitude. They have, in later times, also settled in British territory, in Darrang and Lakhimpur. We find them in the eastern part of the Darrang district, in villages on the Bhareli river, and to the east of it, and in the west of Lakhimpur, on the Darrang border, north of the Brahmaputra.

The numbers of Daflas within British territory at the Census of 1891 were as follows:—

Darrang Lakhimpur						•		•		200 790
2020mpu		·	•		·	·	·		TAL	990

The corresponding total at the last Census of 1901 was 805, of whom 403 were enumerated in Darrang and 395 in Lakhimpur.

The Daflas of Lakhimpur call themselves Nyī-sing, i.e., 'Sing-men.' Mr. Robinson states that the Daflas call themselves $B\bar{a}ngni$. The dialect described by him is, according to Mr. Hamilton, probably that spoken at Helem or Behali, in the Darrang district.

The Daflas are subdivided into numerous clans, and several dialects seem to exist. The western form of speech is apparently widely different from that used in the east, but our information is limited to a few words given by Mr. Hamilton as an appendix to his grammar.

The two specimens of Dafla printed below have been taken from Mr. Hamilton's grammar. The list of words is due to Mr. H. N. Colquhoun, I.C.S., but has been altered so as to agree with the forms given by Mr. Hamilton.

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- Dalton, Lieut. J. T. E.,—On the Meris and Abors of Assam. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xiv, Part i, 1845, pp. 426 and ft.
- ROBINSON, WILLIAM,—Notes on the Languages spoken by the various tribes inhabiting the valley of Assam and its mountain confines. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xviii, Part i, 1849, pp. 183 and ff. Contains a Miri grammar on pp. 224 and ff.; a Miri and Abor vocabulary on pp. 230 and ff. The Abor vocabulary is by the Rev. N. Brown.
- Hoddson, B. H.,—On the Aborigines of the Eastern Frontier. Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xviii, Part ii, 1849, pp. 967 and ff. Reprinted in Miscellaneous Essays relating to Indian Subjects. Vol. ii, London, 1880, pp. 19 and ff. Contains Abor and Miri vocabularies by the Rev. N. Brown.
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- HUNTER, SIR W. W.,—A Comparative Dictionary of the Languages of India and High Asia. London, 1868. Contains an Abor-Miri vocabulary.

- Dalton, Edward Tuite,—Descriptive Ethnology of Bengal. Calcutta, 1872. Account of the Abor Group on pp. 21 and ff.; the Miris on pp. 28 and ff.; the Dophlas on pp. 35 and ff. Vocabularies, Abor (after Brown), Miri (after Robinson), and Dophla (after Robinson) on pp. 73 and ff. The last mentioned vocabulary is essentially the same as the first vocabulary of Angka or Hrusso, reprinted in the same place after Robinson's Assam (1841), p. 339. It is Daffa, and not Aka.
- CAMPBELL, SIR GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India including those of the Aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Duffla, Miri, Abor, etc., on pp. 238 and ff. Another Miri list on pp. 221 and ff.
- STACK, E.,—Report on the Census of Assam for 1881. Calcutta, 1883. Account of Miris, Daphlás, and Abors on pp. 86 and ff. by E. S.
- Needham, J. F.,—Outline Grammar of the Shai'yang Miri Language as spoken by the Miris of that Clan residing in the neighbourhood of Sadiya. With illustrative sentences, phrase-book and vocabulary. Shillong, 1886.
- GAIT, E. A.,—Census of India, 1891. Assam. Vol. I.—Report. Shillong, 1892. Note on Abor, Miri, and Daflá on pp. 183 and f.; note on the tribes on pp. 221 and f.
- Hamilton, R. C.,—An Outline Grammar of the Dafla Language as spoken by the Tribes immediately south of the Apa Tanang Country. Shillong, 1900.

The dialects spoken by the Miris and the Daflas are so closely connected that they may be considered as one and the same language. I have therefore made a combined sketch of the grammatical features of both, dealing with them in parallel columns where the difference between them is so great that their description cannot be combined without incurring the risk of obscurity. The materials which I have used are as follows:—

The sketch of Miri grammar is based on Mr. Needham's grammar of Shaiyang Miri. With regard to Dafla, I have analysed the forms occurring in Mr. Hamilton's hand-book so far as I have been able to do so, and based my sketch on this analysis. I have drawn attention to the instances where the Dafla dialect described by Mr. Robinson differs. Mr. Hamilton's Dafla is the dialect spoken beyond British territory to the north of North Lakhimpur town. The dialect described by Mr. Robinson is stated to be spoken in Darrang. For details the student is referred to the grammars just quoted.

Pronunciation.—Miri and Daflā abound in vowels. Thus we find a, e, i, o, and u, short and long, and besides these a, the sound of a in English 'all,' and \ddot{u} , the sound of \ddot{u} in German 'Mühe.' Miri also seems to possess the vowel \ddot{o} , the sound of \ddot{o} in German 'schön,' in the word which Mr. Needham spells inquu, what? The sound of qua in inqua, he says, is almost like that of qui in English 'quirk.' I have therefore written $in \cdot kw\ddot{o}$.

There is apparently often an interchange between long and short vowels. Thus, we find Miri ma-ta and $m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, search; $k\bar{e}-m\bar{o}$, and $ke-m\bar{o}$, dark, etc. Mr. Hamilton remarks that the interchange between long and short vowels largely depends on the cadence of the sentence.

The pronunciation of vowels is apparently sometimes, especially in unaccented syllables, rather indistinct, and there are several instances of interchange between different vowels.

Miri:

 \mathcal{A} and e are interchangeable in unaccented syllables. Thus we find the locative suffix written ma and me, and the suffix of the ablative is lok-ka and lok-ke.

Daflā:-

 \mathcal{A} and e are sometimes interchanged. Thus, sa-ta te-na, elephant female; nyemm, woman, probably from $ny\bar{i}$, a human being; $d\hat{a}$ -dna and $d\hat{a}$ -dne, is, etc.

A and \ddot{u} both occur in \ddot{a} -na and \ddot{a} - $n\ddot{u}$, mother.

 \bar{A} seems to be interchangeable with \bar{u} and \hat{a} in the verb substantive, which occurs in the forms $d\bar{a}k$, $d\bar{a}ng$, $d\bar{u}ng$, $d\bar{u}$, and $d\hat{a}$.

The vowels \hat{a} and \bar{o} are often interchanged; thus, \bar{a} - $k\hat{a}$, and \bar{a} - $k\hat{o}$, a, one; $g\hat{a}g$ - $l\bar{a}$, calling; $g\bar{o}k$ - $t\bar{o}$, called, etc.

 \bar{O} is interchangeable with au in \bar{o} -ma, daughter, from au, child. \bar{U} is substituted for \bar{o} before ai in the suffix $t\bar{u}$ -ai; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$, and $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ai, saw.

The diphthong ui is sometimes pronounced $u\bar{\imath}$ and also \ddot{u} ; thus, mui, $mu\bar{\imath}$, and $m\ddot{u}$, to wish. It is sometimes replaced by \bar{u} , thus, bui, he; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$, they; $m\bar{u}m$ -buir and muim-buir, a young woman. Ui seems to be substituted for a final \ddot{u} when a vowel follows; thus, $g\bar{\imath}$ -pui, he will go; $g\bar{\imath}$ -pui- \bar{a} , will he go?

Many of these changes are apparently the result of a kind of sandhi. There are also some traces of a kind of 'harmonic sequence.' Thus, the particle $k\ddot{u}$ which often occurs after the future suffix $p\ddot{u}$ is probably identical with the affirmative particle $k\ddot{u}$. Instances are $b\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ $n\acute{o}m$ $p\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, they you strike-will; bet- $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, it will break. Compare bui $g\ddot{\imath}$ - $k\ddot{a}ng$ - $k\ddot{u}$, he has departed.

A short vowel in an unaccented syllable is sometimes dropped; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{i}$ '- $k\bar{a}$ -n $ng\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}$ -ka \bar{e} - $k\bar{u}m$ - $l\hat{a}$, what-is our house-in? bui $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$ \bar{i} '- $t\bar{o}$ -n, he how did? how did he do it? In these instances the interrogative particle na has been abbreviated to n. The accent rests on the penultimate, or, if the interrogative particle be reckoned as a syllable, on the antepenultimate. Compare the accent in $n\hat{a}$ -ka \bar{a} -mik da $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{a}$ '-na, your eyes they what-is? what is the matter with your eyes? $n\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{a}$ \bar{i} - $t\bar{o}$ '-na, you why did? why did you do it? In the last two instances the accent you. III, PART I.

 \bar{A} , \bar{u} , and \ddot{u} all occur in the verb \bar{u} , to go; thus, \bar{a} -tla, coming; \bar{u} -nna, went; \ddot{u} -lyām, on coming.

 \hat{A} and o are often interchanged; thus $h\hat{a}$ -b and ho-b, for; $h\hat{a}kka$ and hokka, from, etc.

Ui and o are sometimes interchanged; thus, bor, younger brother; buir-ma, younger sister.

In many cases there seems to be a kind of assimilation between the vowels of neighbouring syllables. Thus, le-kin, time-one; $l\bar{\imath}-nyi$, times-two; $l\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}m$, times-three, etc. The $\ddot{\imath}$ in $\ddot{\imath}ly\bar{\imath}m$, going, from $\ddot{\imath}-dba$, to go, is perhaps due to such an assimilation. It may, however, be due to a contraction of $\ddot{\imath}$ and i, an i being usually prefixed to ly.

Short final vowels are often dropped. Thus the final a in the male suffix ba and the female suffix na. Compare $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-b$, dog male; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-n$, a bitch; but sa-ta ta-ba, a he elephant; sa-ta ten-na, a she elephant. Other instances of dropping of the final vowel are $m\ddot{u}-g$ and $m\ddot{u}-ga$, his; $ng\dot{a}-l$ and $ng\dot{a}-lu$, we, etc. Even long vowels are often dropped; thus, $k\bar{u}$ and k, again; $ezz\bar{\imath}$ and ezz, cloth, etc.

rests on the syllable immediately preceding na, and a is not dropped.

The e of the accusative suffix em is often dropped when added to a pronoun ending in a vowel. Thus, bui-m, him; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$ -m, them; sim, this; dem, that, etc. The form dem is probably formed from a theme $d\bar{e}$ which occurs in $d\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{i}$ - $l\bar{a}$, therefore, etc., and not directly from da, that.

In other cases the hiatus remains; thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ -em, the father; $m\bar{i}$ -ma-em, a woman, etc. In le-m- $\bar{u}m$ - $k\hat{a}$, three times, a euphonic m is inserted between the two vowels.

Final consonants are sometimes silent; thus, oid, high; oi-ya, higher; gad and $g\tilde{a}$, disinclined; $s\tilde{\imath}t$ and $s\tilde{\imath}$, die; $m\tilde{a}k$ - $b\tilde{o}$, brother-in-law; mā-mō, sister-in-law. Final ng has apparently a rather faint sound and is often dropped; thus, $d\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}ng$ and $d\hat{a}$ - $l\hat{u}$, village; \tilde{a} ng and \tilde{a} , come, etc. It is apparently freely added after a final long vowel; thus, $j\bar{u}t\bar{a}ng$, shoe, from Hindī jūtā; rūng and rū, very; pāngne, female slave, but pāk-bō, male slave; $d\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}k$, a year, but $t\bar{a}ng$ - $ny\bar{i}$ - $k\hat{a}$, two years, etc. In the two last instances pang-ne and tāng-nyī-ká, ng is perhaps directly derived from k before the following n, and not merely added after the dropping of k.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged; thus, $g\bar{a}g$ - $m\bar{o}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, let him eatch, from $g\bar{a}k$, to eatch; $g\bar{a}g$ - $l\bar{a}$, calling, from $g\bar{a}k$, to call; $d\bar{a}g$ -ai, was, from $d\bar{a}k$, to be; $\bar{a}b$ - $d\bar{a}$ -dem, shooting, from $\bar{a}p$, to shoot; po- $r\bar{o}k$ $r\bar{o}k$ - $p\bar{a}$, fowl male, a male fowl, but $sh\bar{a}$ -ben ben- $b\bar{a}$, a he-goat. In such cases the interchange between hard and soft consonants is due to a kind of assimilation to the surrounding sounds.

L and n are sometimes interchanged; thus, $em-n\bar{a}$, saying; $l\bar{a}ng-k\bar{u}m-l\bar{a}$, gathering. The suffixes $l\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$ in these instances apparently correspond to Tibetan las, nas, respectively.

The a of the accusative suffix am is usually dropped when added to pronouns ending in a vowel. Thus, $h\bar{a}m$, that; $ng\bar{a}m$, me, etc. Compare bor-am, the younger brother; $ny\bar{i}-am$, the man, etc.

The consonants seem to be distinctly sounded. In comparing Mr. Robinson's Daflā with that described by Mr. Hamilton, it will, however, be seen that a final consonant has sometimes been dropped. Thus, Hamilton \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, Robinson $l\bar{a}k$, hand; Hamilton a-nyi, Robinson $ny\bar{u}k$, eye; Hamilton \bar{a} , Robinson $\bar{a}ng$, go, etc.

The consonant h in Mr. Hamilton's grammar is apparently often very indistinctly sounded. Thus, the suffix of the locative is given as $h\hat{a}$, but is probably \hat{a} ; compare au-w- \hat{a} , top-on. The suffix of the nominative is usually a, but is also often written ha; the numeral 'three' occurs as hom- $g\hat{a}$ and om- $g\hat{a}$, etc.

Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}$ -b, dog male; $por\hat{a}$ ro-p, fowl male; jem-pl and chem-pl, forty, etc.

N and m are occasionally interchanged; thus, chen-dna, he knows; chem- $m\bar{a}$, he does not know. There seems to be, in such cases, a kind of assimilation. Daflā n often corresponds to Miri m; thus, Daflā $ny\bar{\imath}$, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{\imath}$, man, etc.

L and n are occasionally interchanged; thus, $m\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$, thinking; \bar{u} -k-na, coming back. Compare however the Dibetan suffixes las and nas.

B is substituted for v in $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}b$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, it is slippery, from $b\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}v$, slippery; $t\bar{a}t$ -beg, hear-can, from veg, can, etc. The preceding or following sound is in both cases a surd consonant.

L, m, and n are often doubled. Thus, $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -ella, taking away; nyemm, i.e. $ny\bar{i}$ -ma, a woman; $\bar{a}p$ -denna, i.e. $\bar{a}p$, de, and the suffix na, etc.

Ly has apparently a sound corresponding to that of ll in French 'ailleurs.' This sound is often written ily by Mr. Hamilton. Thus, $n\hat{a}$ $\bar{u}mm\bar{a}$, thou wentestnot, but $n\hat{a}$ $\bar{u}mmai-ly\bar{e}$, didst thou not go? $k\bar{a}$ - $ily\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$, tend; $\ddot{u}ly\bar{a}m$, i.e. perhaps \bar{u} - $ily\bar{a}m$, coming, etc.

The accent usually rests on the penultimate. There are, however, several exceptions. For details the student is referred to the grammars of Messrs. Needham and Hamilton. There is apparently much more change in the accentuation in Daflā than in Miri.

Tones.—Miri is said to abound in tones, but no attempt has ever been made to describe them. We have no information about tones in Daflā.

Prefixes.—Most Miri words consist of two or more syllables. Monosyllables such as $\bar{\imath}$, a bow; $k\bar{o}$, a child; $y\hat{a}$, a night, are comparatively rare. In Daflā monosyllabic words are much more common, though they, in some cases, are only apparently monosyllables, a final vowel having been dropped, as in $\bar{a}b$ from \bar{a} -bo, a father. Miri and Daflā agree in using otiose prefixes. The most common prefix of this kind seems to be a or \bar{a} , used before nouns and adjectives. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father; \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}k$, hand; \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, belly; \bar{a} - $s\bar{\iota}$, water; \bar{a} -pni, all; \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, new; \bar{a} -nin, near, etc.; Daflā \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -na, mother; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, hand; $aiy\bar{e}$, belly; \bar{a} - $s\hat{a}$, long; a- $n\bar{u}$, quick. This prefix is connected with the Burmese prefix a which is used in the formation of nouns and adjectives, and with the Tibetan prefix a in words such as a-ma, mother; a-phyi, grandmother; a- $th\bar{o}$ -ba, beautiful, etc. We may compare the prefix a in the Kuki and Nāgā languages and perhaps the demonstrative pronoun a in many Tibeto-Burman languages.

The same, or a similar, prefix also occurs in the forms \tilde{e} , \tilde{i} , o, and \tilde{u} or \tilde{u} .

 \bar{E} or e occurs in Miri \bar{e} - $ng\hat{a}$, fish; \bar{e} - $k\bar{\imath}$, dog; \bar{e} - $k\bar{\imath}$ m, house; \bar{e} - $p\bar{\imath} k$, arrow, etc.; Daflā e-hi, tooth; e-yin, potato; e- $zz\bar{\imath}$, cloth, etc.

I or i is apparently identical with e. Thus, Daflā $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$, dog; illyi, pig; isshi, water, etc. I have not found any certain instances in Miri.

O is also apparently peculiar to Daflā; thus, oppo, Miri \bar{a} - $p\bar{o}ng$, liquor; $opp\bar{u}$, Miri \bar{a} - $p\bar{u}n$, flower; \bar{o} - $p\bar{u}$, Miri \bar{e} - $p\bar{u}k$, arrow, etc.

U and \ddot{u} occur in words such as Miri \ddot{u} - $m\ddot{u}$, fire; Daflā \ddot{u} -m or \ddot{u} -m, fire; $\ddot{u}tt\ddot{u}$, bread; $\ddot{u}ss\ddot{u}$, firewood, etc.

In most of these cases the prefix is probably the same, the different forms being due to a kind of harmonic sequence.

A prefix $k\bar{e}$ or $k\bar{a}$ is apparently used before adjectives. Thus, Miri $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{o}$, dark; $k\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}$, hungry; $k\bar{e}$ - $sh\bar{a}$, like; Daflā $k\bar{a}$ -n, dark; $k\bar{a}ch$, dirty; $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, hungry, etc. A corresponding prefix ka or ga is used in Kachin, Nāgā, Bodo, and some Kuki-Chin languages.

Several other prefixes probably exist. Thus we find a prefix beginning with b in Miri adjectives such as $b\acute{a}$ - $t\acute{e}$, great; $b\acute{a}$ - $j\acute{e}$, many; $b\acute{a}$ -dong, long; $b\acute{e}$ - $l\~{a}v$, slippery, etc. A prefix $m\acute{e}$ apparently occurs in Miri $m\acute{e}$ - $l\~{a}m$, last, compare $l\~{a}m$ - $k\~{u}$, back, etc. In most

cases, however, we are not as yet able to decide whether a word contains an otiose prefix or not.

The otiose prefixes are usually dropped in words which form the first part of a compound. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}k$, eye; $m\bar{i}k$ - $sh\bar{a}p$, eye-lash; Daflā a-nyi, eye; $ny\bar{i}$ - $s\bar{a}mam$, eye-brow, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral 'one' is often used as an indefinite article. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$ \bar{a} - $k\hat{a}$, a man; Daflā beny $\bar{a}kkin$ - $g\hat{a}$, a stick; $ny\bar{i}$ $\bar{a}kk$, a man. Very often the particles $k\hat{a}$ (Miri) and $g\hat{a}$ (Daflā) are used alone. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$ - $k\hat{a}$, Daflā $ny\bar{i}$ - $g\hat{a}$, a man. $K\hat{a}$ and $g\hat{a}$ are probably identical with the so-called Tibetan article ka, kha, or ga. The Burmese generic suffix a-khu, which is added to numerals when no special suffix is required, might perhaps also be compared.

Relative clauses and demonstrative pronouns are used in order to convey the idea of definiteness.

Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is distinguished by using different words or by adding suffixes. The usual suffixes are $b\bar{o}$, male, and $m\bar{o}$, ma and ne, female, in Miri, and pa or ba, male, and ma and na, female, in Daflā.

Miri:

Another male suffix lvong or $l\bar{o}ng$ seems to occur in Miri $m\bar{\imath}$ -lvong or $m\bar{\imath}$ -l $\bar{o}ng$, a male human being. Thus, \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father, \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, mother: $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$, grandfather; yai- \bar{o} , grandmother: $m\bar{\imath}$ -lvong, man; $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, woman: $p\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$, a male slave; $p\bar{a}ng$ -ne, a female slave: $m\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$, a brother-in-law; $m\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, a sister-in-law. $M\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{o}ng$, man, and $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, woman, are also used in order to distinguish gender; thus, $k\bar{o}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{o}ng$, child male, son; $k\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{\imath}$ -ma, daughter.

Dafla:

Another male suffix $g\bar{a}$ seems to occur in Daflā $nye-g\bar{a}$, a male human being.

Thus, \bar{a} -bo, father; \bar{a} -m \bar{a} and \bar{a} -na, mother: $\bar{a}tt\bar{a}$, grandfather; ai, grandmother: nye- $g\bar{a}$, man; nyemm, woman: $nyerr\bar{a}$, a slave; $p\bar{a}$ -n, a female slave: $t\bar{u}m$ -ba, a bachelor, etc. Nye- $g\bar{a}$, man, and nyemm, woman, are also used in order to distinguish gender; thus, $k\hat{a}$ nye- $g\bar{a}$ or nye- $g\bar{a}$ $k\hat{a}$, son; $k\hat{a}$ nyemm or nyemm $k\hat{a}$, a daughter: $ny\bar{i}$ nye- $g\bar{a}$, a man; $ny\bar{i}$ nyemm, a woman. The two last instances show that nye- $g\bar{a}$ and nye- $m\bar{a}$ are compounds consisting of $ny\bar{i}$ and the suffixes $g\bar{a}$ and ma respectively.

The gender of animals is distinguished by means of suffixes, before which the noun or its last syllable is repeated. The repetition of the noun must be compared with the use of generic prefixes with numerals. The prefixed syllable is the essential part of the noun.

Miri:

The usual suffixes are $b\hat{a}$, $r\hat{a}$, and $t\hat{u}m$, male, and na, female. $B\hat{a}$ and na are also suffixed as a kind of male and female

Dafla:

The usual suffixes are ba or pa, and $g\bar{a}$, male, and na, female. $Nye-g\bar{a}$, man, and nyemm, woman, are said to be used to

¹ The usual forms for 'father' and 'mother' in Miri are $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$, father, and $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, mother. The forms \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ and \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$ are used when outsiders ask questions about one's father or mother. The distinction between the two forms is not, however, quite clear. In the parable \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$, father is used in the first sentence, while afterwards only the form $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$ occurs.

adjective. In this case they are preceded by the prefix \bar{a} , and followed by $k\hat{a}$. Thus, \bar{e} - $k\bar{i}$ $k\bar{i}$ - $b\hat{a}$, a dog; \bar{e} - $k\bar{i}$ $k\bar{i}$ -na, a bitch: $s\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{u}m$ $t\bar{u}m$ - $r\hat{a}$, a male bear; $s\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{u}m$ $t\bar{u}m$ -na, a female bear: men- $j\bar{a}k$ $j\bar{a}k$ - $t\bar{u}m$, a hebuffalo; men- $j\bar{a}k$ $j\bar{a}ng$ -na, a she-buffalo: $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ \bar{a} - $b\hat{a}$ - $k\hat{a}$, a bull; $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ \bar{a} -na- $k\hat{a}$, a cow.

distinguish the gender of animals as well as of human beings. Thus, $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-b$, a dog; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{\imath}-n$, a bitch: $s\bar{\imath}-bin$ $b\bar{\imath}m-pa$, a he-goat; $s\bar{\imath}-bin$ $b\bar{\imath}n-na$, a she-goat: $sebb\bar{\imath}$ begga, a he-monkey; $sebb\bar{\imath}$ be-n, a female monkey: $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ nye-gā, a dog; $\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}$ nyemma, a bitch.

Mr. Hamilton mentions some cases in which the last syllable of the noun is slightly altered before the suffix. Thus, so ha-b, a bull; so ha-n, a cow. Mr. Robinson gives $s\ddot{u}$ - $b\ddot{o}$, a bull, and $s\ddot{u}$ -ne, a cow. The base is sa.

Number.—When it is necessary to denote the number of a noun, and no numeral is added, some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' and so on, is added. The usual word in Miri is ki-ding. In Daflā we find words such as $t\bar{u}ll\bar{u}\bar{e}$, $mal\bar{u}h\bar{e}r$, $mull\bar{u}\bar{e}r$, at-chamma, e- $d\bar{e}$, etc., all meaning 'many,' 'all.' Mr. Robinson gives $p\bar{a}ng$, all, and \bar{a} -rok, many. Thus, Miri \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$ ki-ding, men; Daflā $ny\bar{i}$ $t\bar{u}ll\bar{u}\bar{e}$, men; $s\bar{i}$ -bin e- $d\bar{e}$, goats, etc.

Case.—The various functions which a noun performs in a sentence are usually indicated by means of postpositions.

The nominative does not take any suffix. Thus, Miri $p\bar{a}k$ - $b\bar{o}$ $l\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{o}$, the slave said; Daflā mem e-yin ha-b $ly\bar{\imath}$ -dna, the-root potato like is, the root is like a potato. A particle a is often added. Thus, Miri \bar{e} - $k\bar{\imath}$ -a $ng\bar{o}m$ rek- $t\bar{o}$, dog me bit, a dog bit me; Daflā $ng\bar{a}$ -lu $ny\bar{\imath}$ -sing-a ha \bar{u} -t- $m\bar{a}$, we Daflās there go-not, we Daflās do not go there. In Daflā e is sometimes used instead; thus, $ny\bar{\imath}$ -e \bar{u} - $ly\bar{a}m$, a-man coming, when a man comes.

The suffix a is sometimes added to a noun or adjective as a kind of copula or verb substantive. Thus, Miri $s\bar{\imath}$ $ng\bar{a}-ka$ $b\bar{a}-b\bar{u}-ka$ $\bar{e}-k\bar{u}m-a$, this my father's house-is, this is my father's house; Daffă $s\bar{\imath}$ $ng\bar{a}m$ $abbui-y\bar{a}-a$, this me-concerning old-more-is, he is older than I. A is probably originally a verb substantive or a demonstrative pronoun. It is never used when a demonstrative pronoun is added. Thus, Miri $g\bar{a}s\bar{o}r$ da, cloth that; Daffā $ainy\hat{a}-y\bar{a}$ ha, younger that, the younger.

The nominative is the case of the subject. There is apparently no difference whether the verb is transitive or intransitive.

The accusative is the case of the object. It is often, especially in the case of inanimate nouns, formed without any suffix. Thus, Miri $ng\mathring{a}$ $n\~{a}$ - $n\~{u}$ -ma $g\~{a}$ - $s\~{o}$ r- $k\~{a}$ $b\~{v}$ - $t\~{o}$, I mother-to cloth-a gave, I gave a cloth to my mother; Daflā $\~{u}m$ $p\~{a}$ r- $t\~{a}$, fire light, light a fire. The usual suffix is em in Miri and am in Daflā. It is used to denote not only the direct object, but also the indirect one with verbs meaning 'to give,' 'to say,' and so on. Thus, Miri $ng\~{a}$ - $k\~{a}$ $\={a}$ tt $\~{u}$ r $k\~{o}$ - $s\~{a}$ g-em $b\~{v}$ - $k\~{a}$, my property-of share give, give me my share of the property; bui- $k\~{a}$ $\={a}$ - $b\~{u}$ -em $b\~{u}$ - $t\~{o}$, his father-to (he) said; $por\~{o}k$ au-em $\~{a}m$ -buin $b\~{v}$ - $b\~{u}$ - $b\~$

all-not whole-time stay will, I will stay until the singing is finished. Compare the use of this suffix in the formation of adverbial participles.

Miri:

The usual suffix of the dative is ma or me. Thus, Dumai-ma $b\bar{\imath}-to-k\bar{a}$, Dumaito give; $ng\hat{a}$ Ishar-me $p\bar{a}p$ $\bar{\imath}-t\bar{o}$, I God-to sin did. Compare Burmese $mh\bar{a}$, in, at, in presence of, concerning.

Dafla:

The usual suffix of the dative is pa or ba, to. Thus, $ng\tilde{a}$ -p jibba, me-to give; $ng\tilde{a}$ $S\tilde{a}g\tilde{a}$ -ba jit-namma, I S $\tilde{a}g\tilde{a}$ -to gave.

The genitive is often expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix. Thus, Miri $d\vec{a}$ - $l\bar{u}ng$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$, village-of men, the men of the village; \bar{a} - $d\bar{i}$ $tai\bar{o}$ - $l\vec{a}$, hill-of top-on, on the top of the hill; Daflā $ny\bar{i}$ $\bar{u}\bar{i}$, man's blood; sa-ta \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$, an elephant's leg. A suffix ka in Miri, and ka or ga in Daflā is often added, especially in the case of the possessive genitive. Thus, Miri $ng\hat{a}$ Dumai-ka au-a, I Dumai's son-am; Daflā $ng\hat{a}$ -ka \bar{a} -bo-ka (or $\bar{a}b$ -ga) $n\bar{a}m$, my father's house. Compare Kanāshī and Sunwār $k\bar{a}$, Yūkhā $g\bar{a}$, Tibetan kyi, Meithei gi, Empēo gu, etc. This postposition has originally a genitive and ablative force. Compare Burmese ka, from.

Miri:

The suffix of the locative is $l\acute{a}$ or $l\~{o}$; thus, $d\acute{a}$ - $ny\~{i}$ - $l\acute{a}$ ma-to- $k\~{a}$, sun-in put, put it in the sun; bui $\~{e}$ - $k\~{u}m$ - $l\acute{a}$ d $\~{u}ng$, he house-in is; shor $\~{i}$ - $l\acute{a}$ rin-to- $k\~{a}$, ropes-in bind, bind him with ropes. Compare the Tibetan dative suffix la which denotes the relation of space in the widest sense. Another suffix $\~{a}$ occurs in $s\~{a}$ - $p\~{u}$, here, etc.

The ablative is formed by adding k, k-ka, and k-ke to the locative suffix $l\bar{o}$. The genitive suffix ka often precedes the ablative suffix. Thus, \bar{e} - $k\bar{u}m$ -lok, house from; Du-mai-ka lok-ka, from Dumai; $n\hat{a}$ -ka $n\bar{a}$ -na-ka lok, our mother from. K and k-ka in lok and lok ka are identical with the genitive suffix. The use of the genitive before lok(-ka) shows that the locative suffix $l\hat{a}$ is originally a noun in the locative; compare $n\hat{a}$ $ng\hat{a}$ -ka $l\hat{a}$ \bar{a} -gin- $p\ddot{u}$ $d\bar{u}ng$, thou mine in always art, thou art always with me.

The vocative is like the nominative. Thus, $b\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$, O father; au-a, O son.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}$ - $l\hat{a}$, inside, within; $k\bar{e}$ - $\bar{e}g$ - $l\hat{a}$, between, under; $r\bar{a}$ - $d\hat{a}$ - $l\hat{a}$, among; $tai\bar{o}$ - $l\hat{a}$, on the top of; $k\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, before; $m\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}m$ - $p\ddot{u}$, behind, etc.

Dafla:

The suffixes of the locative are \hat{a} and $l\hat{a}$. Thus, au-w- \hat{a} , top-on; $\bar{u}ll\bar{u}$ - \hat{a} , on the rock; $\bar{a}l$ - $l\hat{a}$, in a day. Usually, however, $s\hat{a}$ and $h\hat{a}$, the locatives of the demonstrative pronouns $s\bar{\iota}$, this, and ha, that, are added. Thus, zilla $s\hat{a}$, station this-in, in the station; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}$ $h\hat{a}$, hand that-on, on the hand.

The ablative is formed by adding k or kha to the locative. Thus, au okka, top from; $\bar{u}\bar{\iota}$ $mn\bar{u}k$ $l\acute{a}k$, ghost's country from, from the dead; nanga $s\acute{a}kka$, village thisfrom, from the village; $dar\bar{a}b$ hokka, property that-from, from the property.

The vocative is like the nominative. A particle \hat{a} is, however, sometimes added; thus, $\hat{a}b$ - \hat{a} , O father.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are $a-r\ddot{u}-h\acute{a}$, inside; $\acute{a}-g\bar{u}m-h\acute{a}$ and $d\acute{a}k-h\acute{a}$, near; ba, to; $ka-t\~{a}-ba$, on account of; $k\~{a}-ku-\acute{a}$, behind; lag-ba and $lag-h\~{a}$, with; $lep\~{a}-h\~{a}$, among, etc.

The suffix of the comparative is $y\bar{a}$, and the compared noun precedes in the accusative. A particle $p\bar{u}nam$, than, is inserted between the compared noun and the comparative in Miri. Thus, Miri $ng\hat{a}$ -ka $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ $n\hat{a}$ -k $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ -em $p\bar{u}$ -nam ai- $y\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}k$, my cloth thy cloth than good-more-is; $n\hat{a}$ -k-em $p\bar{u}$ -nam $b\hat{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $d\hat{a}$, thine than large-more-is, it is too large for thee; Daflā mui-ga bor ha mui-ga buir-ma $h\bar{a}m$ $au\hat{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ -dna, his brother he his sister her-than tall-more-is, his brother is taller than his sister.

In Miri bui-ka buir \acute{a} bui-ka buir-ma lok-ke $b\acute{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$ -dek, his brother his sister from tall-more, his brother is taller than his sister, we have another suffix dek, apparently corresponding to Burmese a-thak, and to tak in some Kuki-Chin languages.

The superlative is expressed by comparing with 'all.'

Miri:

Ā-pui-lok, all from, or ā-pui-lok-em pünam, all-from-considering than, is prefixed to the comparative. Thus, ā-pui-lok ai-yā, all-from good-more, best; nā-ka gāsōr ā-pui-lok-em ai-dā, thy cloth all-from good-is; Dū-pū-rī-ka ken-tū ā-pui-lok-em pünam kān-kān-yā, Dūpūrī's earrings allfrom pretty-pretty-more, Dūpūrī's earrings are the prettiest.

Dafla:

 $M\bar{u}ll\bar{\iota}$ -ja-ha, $m\bar{u}l$ - $l\bar{u}$ - $j\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}m$, or, according to Mr. Robinson, $p\bar{a}ng$, all, is prefixed to the comparative. Thus, $h\hat{a}$ $n\bar{a}m$ -a $m\bar{u}ll\bar{\iota}$ -ja-ha $\bar{a}l$ - $y\bar{a}nna$, his house all-than good-more; $m\bar{u}l$ - $l\bar{\iota}$ -ja ezz $h\bar{a}m$ $\bar{a}l$ - $y\bar{a}nn$ ezz, all clothes those-than good-more cloth, the best cloth of all; $p\bar{a}ng$ au- $y\bar{a}$, all-than higher, highest.

Adverbs are formed by adding the suffix $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and ba in Daflā. Thus, Miri ai- $p\ddot{u}$, well; ai- $m\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, badly; $b\ddot{a}$ - $j\ddot{e}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, highly; $s\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}t$ - $p\ddot{u}$, foolishly; Daflā $\bar{a}l$ -ba, well; a- $n\ddot{u}$ -ba, quickly; ha-b, thus; hog-ba, why? etc.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the lists of words. They follow the noun they qualify. The suffix $k\hat{a}$ (Miri) or $g\hat{a}$ (Daflā) is usually added to the numerals. Compare the Indefinite article. The first six numerals are preceded by the prefix \bar{a} .

The form \bar{a} - $t\bar{e}r$ - $k\acute{a}$, one, in Miri is only used as a numeral, and not as an indefinite article. Compare Burmese tach, pronounced tit, one. The r in \bar{a} - $t\bar{e}r$ - $k\acute{a}$ may be compared with the r in Miri \bar{e} -ek er- $b\acute{a}$, pig male.

'Four' is $p\bar{\imath}$ in Miri and pli or pl in Daflā. Compare pa-li in Lushēi and connected languages.

'Six' is keng and $k\bar{\imath}$ in Miri, kr in Daflā. Compare Burmese khrok, pronounced khyauk. Mr. Robinson gives the Daflā form $\bar{a}kple$.

The numerals 'seven,' 'eight,' and 'nine' are compounds, and the prefix \bar{a} is not used before them. Compare the dropping of prefixes in compound nouns.

'Seven' is kī-nit in Miri, and kannī in Daflā. Mr. Robinson gives kānag. The word seems to mean 'two more than the hand.' Compare Bunán nyizhi, Bârâ sni, etc.

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'Eight' is $p\bar{\imath}-ny\bar{\imath}$ in Miri, and $pl\bar{\imath}-n$ in Daflā. Mr. Robinson has plag-nag. The word means 'four times two.'

Miri $k\hat{a}$ - $n\bar{a}ng$, Daflā $ky\bar{a}$ (Robinson $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{o}$), nine, must be compared with Tibetan gu, Burmese ko.

The numerals 11 to 19, 21 to 29, etc., are formed by inserting Miri lāng; Daflā la, and, between 'ten,' 'twenty,' etc., and the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc.

Thus, Miri ē-ing ā-ūm-kā, tens three, thirty. In Daflā the ordinary word for 'ten' is not used in this way but a word chom, corresponding to shom in Lushēi and connected languages. Thus, chom-um-kā, thirty; jem-pl-kā, forty, etc. Daflā nyi-krü, twenty, is formed by prefixing the multiplier to another word for 'ten.' Krü must be compared with Angāmi kerr, ten.

The numerals are usually preceded by generic prefixes. These are often words with a meaning of their own. Thus, in Miri \bar{a} -pui pui-keng-gá, Daflā püp pü-kr-gá, eggs six, the prefixes pui and pü are simply shortened forms of the words for 'egg.' In other cases the generic prefixes have apparently now lost their meaning. They are never used before the numerals 'seven,' 'eight,' and 'nine' in Miri. The prefix \bar{a} is often used instead both in Miri and Daflā.

Such prefixes are :--

nyá, I.

ngom, me.

 $ng\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}$, we.

ná, thou.

nom, thee.

 $n\hat{a}$ - $l\tilde{u}$, you.

bui, he, she.

 $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$, they.

buim, him, her.

bui-ka, his, her, hers.

ngá-ka, my, mine.

 $n\hat{a}$ -ka, thy, thine.

Miri:

· bār, for rupees; bōr, for flat things; dōr, for animals; kōng, for houses; pīr, for birds; pōm, for villages; pui, for round things, eggs, months, etc. Thus, porok pīr-pī-kā, fowls four; gā-sōr bōr-ūm-kā, three cloths, etc.

Daflā:

 $b\bar{a}r$, for money, months, etc.; bor, for leaves of trees; dor, for animals; $n\bar{a}m$, for houses; pom, for villages; pü, for eggs, etc. Thus, bol bar-g-ba, month one-about; nangū pom-pla-gá, four villages, etc.

Daflā:

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Miri:

ngá, I.
ngām, me.
ngá, ngá-ka, my, mine.
ngá-lu, we.
ná, thou.
nām, thee.

ná, ná-ka, thy, thine.

ná-lu, you.ma, he, she.mām, him, her.

mui-ga, $m\ddot{u}$ -ga, his, her, hers.

 $b\bar{u}llu$, they.

Reflexive pronouns are:

Miri:

 $Ai-y\ddot{u}$, self; accusative $ai-y\tilde{u}m$, genitive $aik\ddot{a}$. The particles $sh\ddot{u}$ and muin

Dofla:

 $\bar{A}tte$, self, is only used in the accusative. The particle $s\tilde{u}$ or $sh\tilde{u}$ gives a reflexive

shū give a reflexive force to the verb. Thus, $n\hat{a}-l\bar{u}$ $k\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}-l\bar{a}$ $g\bar{e}-muin-sh\bar{u}-d\bar{u}-na$, you why quarrelling-with-each-other-are? Compare the reflexive particle che in Mikir, s in Bāhing, etc.

The Demonstrative pronouns are:-

Miri:

 $s\bar{\imath}$ and $s\bar{\imath}$ -da, this; da and a-da, that; a-la, that person or thing in sight but not near. $S\bar{\imath}$ and da are inflected by adding the ordinary suffixes. Thus, accusative sim and dem; genitive $s\hat{a}$ -ka and da-ka; ablative $s\hat{a}$ -k and dak.

A in a-da and a-la is apparently an independent pronoun. Compare a-la, thatin, there; a-lokka, therefrom. A corresponding pronoun a occurs in many other connected dialects.

Da is often added to a noun as a kind of definite article; thus, $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{o}r$ dem $ng\bar{o}m$ $b\bar{i}$ - $k\bar{a}$, cloth that me-to give, give me the cloth.

force to the verb. Thus, $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ che- \bar{a} - $s\bar{u}$ -denna, dogs biting-one-another-are, the dogs are fighting.

Dafla:

 $s\bar{i}$, this; ha, that; \bar{a} - $l\hat{a}$, that person or thing in sight but not near.

Ta and ba are demonstrative bases common to Miri and Daflā. They are only found in the locative. Thus, Miri ta-la, Daflā $t\bar{a}$ -la, there, up stream; Miri ba-la, Daflā $b\bar{a}$ -la, there, downstream. Daflā, and perhaps also Miri, apparently also possess a demonstrative pronoun ka, that; thus, nga \bar{a} -dna-k ha-la, 'I am-come' that (k) saying, saying that he has come; $k\bar{a}$ - $ily\bar{a}$ -ta ka ha-l, 'tend' that saying, saying that he should tend. Compare Adverbial participles.

There are no relative pronouns. Relative participles are used instead, and a demonstrative pronoun is often added as a kind of correlative. The usual suffix of the relative participle is na. Thus, Miri ngōm sīm gā-sōr sīm bī-na ā-mī da sī-kāng, me-to this cloth this giving man that dead-is, the man who gave me this cloth is dead; Daflā kā bū-na nyemm, child bearing woman, a woman who has borne a child. The suffix nām forms verbal nouns which are used as relative participles, in most cases with a passive meaning. Thus Miri ngā-ka Dhonirām-lokke rēnām gōrū da yōk-kai, my Dhanirām-from buying cow that lost-was, the cow which I bought from Dhanirām was lost; Daflā oml āb-nām nyī, poison striking man, a man who has been touched by poison; mōbū āb-nām nyī hē sī, gun firing man that this, this is the man who fired the gun.

Instances such as Miri *Dhonirām-ka lū-dá long-á-dem*, Dhanirām's said-being dayon, on the day which Dhanirām mentions, where the verb substantive $d\hat{a}$ is used as a relative participle, make it probable that the suffix na is also originally a verb substantive.

We often also find relative clauses rendered by means of two co-ordinate sentences, after the pattern: 'I saw a man, he is here.'

The interrogative pronouns are:—

Miri:

 $s\bar{e}-k\bar{o}$, who? $in-kw\ddot{o}$ and $in-k\acute{a}$, what? $k\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}$, what? what matter? $a-dit-k\acute{a}$, how much? how many? $k\bar{a}-p\ddot{\imath}$, how? $k\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}-l\bar{a}$, why?

The indefinite particles $d\bar{\imath}$ and $t\bar{e}$ make interrogative pronouns indefinite. Thus, $s\bar{e}-k\bar{o}-d\bar{\imath}$, somebody; $s\bar{e}-k\bar{o}-t\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, anybody exists-not, nobody.

Verbs.—Verbs do not vary for gender, number, or person. The different tenses are formed by adding suffixes.

The usual verb substantive is $d\bar{u}ng$ in Miri and $d\bar{o}ng$ or $d\bar{a}$ in Daffā. It probably corresponds to Tibetan 'a-dug-pa, to be, to exist, Mikir do, to stay, to abide, etc. This verb is commonly added to other verbs as a kind of auxiliary. Compare the corresponding use of 'a-dug-pa in Tibetan. Other forms of the verb substantive will be mentioned below.

Miri:

The verb $d\bar{u}ng$, to be, occurs in several slightly different forms such as $d\bar{u}ng$, $d\bar{u}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}\bar{k}$, $d\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}ng$. It is possible that two different roots are contained in these forms. They are, however, used promiscuously.

The forms $d\bar{u}ng$, $d\bar{a}k$, etc., are used for the present, and sometimes also for the past time. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $d\bar{u}ng$ or $d\hat{a}k$, I am; \bar{a} - $m\bar{i}$ -a $g\bar{i}$ - \bar{a} - $d\bar{a}k$, a man has come.

The past tense is usually formed by adding the suffix ai, probably another form of the verb substantive. Compare ai in Kachin, and \bar{e} in some Kuki-Chin and Nāgā languages. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $d\bar{u}ng$ -ai or $d\bar{a}g$ -ai, I was.

The nominative suffix a seems to belong to the same root. Compare $ng\hat{a}$ buim $k\bar{a}$ -ling-a, I him to-see-wishing am, I wish to see him.

Daflā:

hī, who? hogo, what? hogad-gá, how much? how many? hogahab, how? hog-ba, why?

The indefinite particles $j\bar{a}$ and $g\hat{a}$ make interrogative pronouns indefinite. Thus, $hog\text{-}g\hat{a}$, something; $hog\text{-}j\bar{a}$, anything, etc.

Dafla:

The form $d\bar{o}ng$, to be, is given by Mr. Robinson. Mr. Hamilton gives $d\hat{a}$, which is often abbreviated to da and d. The present tense is $d\hat{a}$ - $d\hat{a}$ or $d\hat{a}$ -d-na, the latter form containing the abbreviated verb d, and the suffix na, probably another verb substantive. Mr. Robinson gives $d\bar{o}ng$ - $p\bar{a}$ in the present and $d\bar{o}ng$ - $pon\bar{a}$ in the past. $D\hat{a}$ is, in other respects, conjugated as an ordinary verb.

The nominative suffix a seems to be another verb substantive. Thus, sī ngām bor-iyā-a, he me-than young-more-is, he is younger than I. Compare nominative, above.

The **Present tense** is formed by adding the verb substantive to the root. Thus, Miri $ng\hat{a} k\bar{a}-d\bar{u}ng$ or $k\bar{a}-d\hat{a}$, I see; $ng\hat{a}-l\bar{u} t\ddot{u}-d\hat{a}$, we drink; Daflā $ng\hat{a} k\bar{a}-p\bar{a}-d\hat{a}$, I happen to see; $ng\hat{a} \bar{a}-l\bar{a}$ achi-d \hat{a} , my leg sore-is.

Miri:

The form $d\bar{u}$ is often used before the particle $d\bar{i}$ denoting vague probability.

Dafla:

The usual suffix of the present tense is na or $n\bar{e}$, probably a verb substantive.

Thus, $p\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{o}ng$ \bar{o} - $d\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$, rain falling-is-possibly, can it be raining?

Compare Rengmā Nāgā $l\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{e}$, Semā $l\bar{a}$, etc. The suffix of the relative participle is perhaps identical. D, the shortest form of the verb $d\hat{a}$, is usually prefixed to na and $n\bar{e}$. Denna is often substituted for dna. The e in denna can be considered as a kind of svarabhakti. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}$ \bar{v} -l- $n\bar{e}$, we go; $ng\hat{a}$ $d\hat{a}$ -dna or $d\hat{a}$ - $dn\bar{e}$, I am; $Ai\bar{a}ng$ -a chen-dna, the Abors know; $ng\hat{a}$ -lu $\bar{o}p\bar{u}$ - $h\hat{a}$ oml $\bar{a}p$ -denna, we arrows-in poison put, we poison our arrows.

Past time.—The suffixes used in Miri and Daflā differ widely. Only one suffix seems to be common to both, Miri $t\bar{o}$, and Daflā t. Compare Mikir $t\bar{a}ng$, to finish, the suffix $t\bar{a}$ in many Kuki-Chin languages, etc.

Miri:

The present tense is sometimes used to denote the past. Thus, *Dhonirām-ka buir-ma gīdūng*, Dhanirām's sister came.

The usual suffix of the past time is $t\bar{o}$. The suffix ai is often added, and $t\bar{o}$ is then changed to $t\bar{u}$. Thus, $bui\ l\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{o}$, he said; $ng\hat{a}\ d\hat{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ai, I ate.

The suffix $k\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{a}ng$, usually denotes a distant past, but is also used in the same way as $t\bar{o}$. Thus, $y\bar{o}k$ - $k\bar{a}ng$, it is lost; \bar{a} - $s\bar{i}$ - $l\hat{a}$ \bar{o} -lek- $k\bar{a}ng$, water-in fallen-has, it has fallen into the water.

The suffix ai seems to be added to $k\bar{a}$ in $g\bar{o}r\bar{u}$ $y\bar{o}k$ -kai, the cow was lost.

The suffix $k\bar{u}$ which is often added, is merely an assertive particle. Thus, bui $g\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{u}$, he has departed. Compare $ng\hat{a}$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{\imath}$ - $k\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}$ -ai $s\bar{\imath}$ -da- $k\bar{u}$, I man-a saw this-indeed, this is the man I saw.

Dafla:

The suffix t, mentioned above, is often inserted before the various suffixes of the past time.

Lā seldom occurs alone, t being usually prefixed. Tlā is often changed to tella and tlēya. Lā must be compared with Angāmi, Semā, and Rengmā lē, Mikir lā, etc. Compare also the suffix of the conjunctive participle. Instances of its use are pakh-lā, he has killed; pen-jī-tlā, he divided-gave; mā-yūm-tella, he wasted; kā a-nyi-gā dā-tlē-ya, sons two were, there were two sons.

The most usual suffix of the past tense is nma, nam-ma, or nemma, probably a past tense of the root na or $n\bar{c}$ mentioned above. The real suffix is probably ma. Compare man in Bàrâ and other languages of the Bodo group.

The interchange between nma and namma is analogous to that between dna and denna, tlā and tella. Thus, ngá kā-nma, I saw; ma tach-namma, he asked; ālnemma, it was good. Nna is apparently sometimes used instead of nma; thus, ūnna. he went; nyīn-kū-nna, he was lost; ná da-nna, you have eaten. These forms are probably only present tenses used to denote the past.

A **Present definite** is formed by adding $d\bar{u}ng$ or $d\bar{a}k$ to the root or to the participle in $l\bar{a}$. Thus, bui $d\hat{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, he feeds, or, is feeding; $k\bar{o}$ bui $y\bar{u}v$ - $l\bar{a}$ $d\bar{u}ng$, child that sleeping is.

An **Imperfect** is formed by adding $d\bar{u}ng$ -ai or $d\bar{a}g$ -ai to the root. Thus, $ng\hat{a}k\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}g$ -ai, I was seeing.

Future.—The usual suffixes are $y\bar{e}$, $p\bar{n}$, and $y\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{u}$; thus, $p\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{o}ng$ \bar{o} - $y\bar{e}$, rain fallwill; $ng\hat{a}$ $l\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{u}$, I say-will; $n\hat{a}$ -ka $t\bar{a}ra$ ai- $y\bar{e}$ - $p\bar{u}$, thy sore good-be-will, thy sore will get well.

The particle $d\bar{\imath}$ denoting vague probability is often added to $y\bar{e}$; thus, $bui\ g\bar{\imath}-\bar{a}-y\bar{e}-d\bar{\imath}$, he will probably come.

The particle $k\ddot{u}$, probably identical with the assertive suffix $k\ddot{u}$, is often added to $p\ddot{u}$; thus, \dot{e} - $k\ddot{\imath}$ -a $n\ddot{o}m$ rek- $p\ddot{u}$ - $k\ddot{u}$, dog you bite-will.

T and p are sometimes inserted before the suffix nma. Thus, ngá lyī-t-namma, I have worked; ngá jī-t-namma, I gave; ngá kā-pā-tenma, I happened to see; ma jī-p-namma, he has given, etc.

The p which is inserted in forms such as $j\bar{\imath}$ -p-namma, is also used alone as a suffix of the past time, in the form $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$, to which t and n or ne are usually prefixed. Thus, ma $p\bar{a}t$ dorog mem- $p\bar{a}$, he tiger one killed-has; $ng\hat{a}$ $y\bar{u}b$ -t- $b\bar{a}$, I have slept; $b\bar{u}llu$ \bar{u} -n- $b\bar{a}$, they have gone; $pott\bar{u}ng$ -a $d\bar{u}g$ -ne- $b\bar{a}$, a splinter pricked (him), etc. Mr. Robinson gives $pan\bar{a}$ as the usual suffix of the past. We may compare Tibetan pa-yin, pen, and pin.

The suffix $p\tilde{a}$ is often used to form a perfect. Compare the instances above. A kind of perfect is also formed by adding $ny\tilde{a}$, to finish. Thus, $sa\ k\tilde{a}\ j\bar{\imath}t$ - $n\tilde{a}m\ pakh$ - $j\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} -lyi- $khr\bar{a}m$ - $ny\bar{a}$, cow young fat kill-give-indeed-do-even-fini-hed, you have killed the fatted calf and given it to him.

A Present definite is formed by adding s-danna; thus, nyâ kā-s-danna, I am seeing. The usual form, however, is identical with the present tense.

An **Imperfect** is formed by adding $d\hat{a}$ -nma to the participle in l. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -l $d\hat{a}$ -nma, I was seeing.

The suffix of the **Future** is ne-pü, na-pü, or n-pü, i.e. pü added to na or ne. Thus, ngā kā-il-ne-pü, I will see; ma ji-n-pü, he will give. The syllable il in kā-il-ne-pü occurs in various forms such as il, ilyā, lyi, ly, etc. It is probably a verb meaning 'to be occupied with,' 'to be,' and seems to convey the idea of an action which is not yet finished. Compare the participles ü-ly-kū-lā, while returning; ü-t-kū-lā, having returned.

A kind of periphrastic future is formed by adding $t\bar{a}$ to the root. $T\bar{a}$ is probably a verb meaning 'to intend.' Compare $ng\hat{a}$ \bar{u} - $t\bar{a}$ -dna, I to-go-intend; $ng\hat{a}$ $ny\bar{i}n$ \bar{v} -la

 $gr\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ -il-ne, I camp going shoot-intendingam, I will go out shooting; $ng\tilde{a}$ ben- $t\bar{a}$ -il-ne, I will say. $T\bar{a}$ is often abbreviated to t before lyi; thus, $ng\tilde{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -tlyinne, I will see; $ng\tilde{a}$ -lu da-tlyinn, we will eat.

Mr. Robinson gives $b\bar{o}$, which is identical with $p\ddot{u}$, as the suffix of the future.

The suffix $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and Daflā is probably identical with Mikir $p\ddot{o}$, which denotes an action beginning now and continuing in the future. Miri $y\ddot{e}$ perhaps corresponds to Mikir $j\ddot{\iota}$, which denotes an action beginning later on.

The suffix of the **Imperative** is $k\bar{a}$, to which to, $t\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$, or $l\bar{a}ng$ is usually prefixed. Thus, $b\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$, give; $p\bar{a}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, strike; $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$, see; $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, see. The suffix to- $k\bar{a}$ implies that the action should be performed once, while $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ means 'see, as a rule.' $T\bar{o}$ - $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{a}$ probably contains the verb $\bar{\imath}$, to do.

The imperative of the first person plural is formed by adding $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$; thus, \bar{a} -ser- $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$, let us make merry. $J\bar{e}$ is probably identical with the future suffix $y\bar{e}$.

The usual suffix of the **Imperative** is $t\hat{a}$; thus, $da-t\hat{a}$, eat; $ji-t\hat{a}$, give. In $\bar{a}-t-k\bar{u}$, come in again, $t\hat{a}$ has been shortened to t.

Another suffix of the imperative is ba. It usually refers to an action which ought to take place in future. Thus, jibba, give. Compare Infinitive of purpose.

The suffix $y\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$ conveys the idea of continuality; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $t\hat{a}$, watch (continually).

The future is used as an imperative of the first person plural. Thus, $ng\hat{a}$ -lu datlyinn, let us eat.

The suffix of the **Negative Imperative** is $y\bar{o}$, to which in Miri the suffix $k\bar{a}$ is added. Thus, Miri $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{o}$ - $k\bar{a}$, Daflā $k\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{o}$, do not see. $Y\bar{o}$ is probably a verb meaning 'to cease,' 'to desist.' The usual negative $m\bar{a}$, with the suffix ba, is sometimes used as a prohibitive suffix in Daflā; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ba, do not look.

An infinitive or verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}m$. Thus, Miri $d\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar{u}m$ - $d\bar{u}m$ -em tat- $t\bar{o}$, drum-beating (he) heard; Daflā $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}m$, seeing; da- $n\bar{a}m$, eating, food. The root alone is used in the same way in Daflā, and sometimes, when followed by postpositions, also in Miri. Thus, Miri $n\bar{a}$ -ka $g\bar{i}$ -rosim, your going-after; $d\bar{u}$ - $a\bar{u}m$

The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is $p\ddot{u}$ in Miri and ba in Daflā. Mr. Robinson gives $b\bar{o}$ for Daflā. This suffix is identical with the future suffix, and probably also with the Daflā postposition ba, to, for. The purpose is also sometimes expressed in a periphrastic way by means of the participle 'saying' preceded by a future or an imperative. Thus, Miri $ng\bar{o}m$ $b\bar{v}-p\ddot{u}$ $em-n\bar{a}$ $b\bar{o}m-\bar{a}-t\bar{v}-y\ddot{u}$, me to 'give-will' saying bring-didst? didst thou bring it in order to give it to me? Daflā illyi $k\bar{a}-ily\bar{a}-t\hat{a}$ ka ha-l $\bar{u}-m-tella$, 'pigs tend' that saying sent, he sent him in order to tend pigs.

The suffixes $p\ddot{u}$ and ba are usually preceded by other elements.

Miri:

Daflā:

 $K\bar{a}$ is usually prefixed to $p\ddot{u}$; thus, $.\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{e}r$ $\bar{\imath}$ - $k\ddot{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, work to do, in order to

Ba is usually added to da or d, i.e. the short form of $d\tilde{a}$, to be, or to $t\tilde{a}$, to

work. $P\ddot{u}$ is, however, also used alone and the form is then identical with the future. Thus, $ng\acute{a}$ $g\bar{\imath}$ - $p\ddot{u}$ mui- $d\bar{u}ng$, I going-for (or go-will) wish, I wish to go.

intend. The latter form is the usual infinitive of purpose, the former being often used as a verbal noun. Thus, $ai-h\hat{a}-b$ dalā-da-ba mā-tlā, belly-the-for eat-away-to wished, he wished to eat his full; pol barg-ba ū-dba lyī-dne-pū, month one to-go bewill, it is a month's journey; $ny\bar{i}-e$ oml $n\bar{a}-t\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ $\ddot{u}-ly\bar{a}m$, men poison take-to coming, when the men come in order to take the poison.

Participles.—The relative participles have been dealt with under Relative Pronouns.

Different kinds of adverbial participles are formed by adding postpositions to the verbal noun. Thus, the conditional mood is formed by suffixing mui in Miri and nyi in Daflā, and then adding the locative suffix. Compare Miri $ng\acute{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -mui- $l\acute{o}$, if I see; Daflā $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -nyi- $l\acute{a}$, if I happen to see. The suffix am or em, which is usually added to the accusative, is used in the formation of several participles.

Miri:

Dāk-kōm and dá-dem are common suffixes. Both contain the suffix em, preceded by a pronoun kō or da, that. Dāk and dá are forms of the verb substantive. Thus, ka-dāk-kōm, though I saw; ī-dāk-kōm, though doing, but; bū-lū ā-ser-dá-dem ābuiā-na au ā-rēg-lá dūng-ai, they merry-being-that-in eldest son fields-in was, while they were feasting the eldest son was in the fields. These forms consist of a finite verb with a demonstrative pronoun added as a correlative. Bū-lū ā-ser-dá-dem, is lit. 'they feasted, that-in.'

Dafla:

Am is added to the pronoun ka or to the root. Thus, $h\bar{u}r$ -lyi- $k\bar{a}m$, when thirsty; \ddot{u} - $ly\bar{a}m$, when coming, che- $ly\bar{a}m$, when biting.

The locative suffixes $h\hat{a}$ and $l\hat{a}$ are used in a similar way. Thus, \ddot{u} -ly- $h\hat{a}$, in the act of going; $d\hat{a}$ -d- $k\hat{a}$ - $h\hat{a}$, while living; $k\bar{a}$ -t- $l\hat{a}$, though having seen, etc.

The suffix ba, which forms adverbs, is also added to adverbial participles. Thus, $ng\acute{a}$ da- $p\~{a}$ - $y\~{a}$ - $m\~{a}$ -ba $k\~{a}$ - $n\acute{a}$ -ba $s\~{i}$ - $ly\~{a}$ - $s\~{u}$ -taily $\~{e}$, I to-eat-get-more-not-as hungerwith dying-be-will, I shall probably die with hunger, not getting anything to eat. A whole sentence may be turned into an adverb by adding ba. Thus, $n\~{a}$ nyerr $\~{a}$ achham $ly\~{i}$ -dna-ba $ly\~{i}$ -m-ta-ba, thy servant many work-as work-make, let me work like thy servants.

The suffix of the conjunctive participle is $l\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}$; thus, Miri or-shū- $l\bar{a}$ bī-tō, dividing give, divide and give; $n\bar{o}m$ ai-mō-pü em-nā bī-tō, thee good-do-will saying gave, I gave it to you in order to do you good; Daflā hen dād- $l\bar{a}$ ha benma, senses recovering he said; rongā-hokka ū-k-na tā-pā-tella, fields-from returned-having (he) heard.

 $L\bar{a}$ is often shortened to l in Daflā, and t, te, and pe are very commonly prefixed. Thus, $d\hat{a}$ -t-la, having been; \ddot{u} -t- $k\bar{u}$ -la, having returned; $m\hat{a}$ - $y\bar{u}m$ -t-ella, having spent; $s\hat{a}$ - $l\bar{u}$ -pe-la, having feasted. Ella is sometimes substituted for $l\bar{a}$; thus, $n\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -ella, having taken away. Compare the corresponding forms in the present and past tenses.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody struck me.'

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning. Thus:-

Miri:

 $g\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} to-go-enter, to come; $t\bar{a}t$ -ken, to-hear-know, to understand; $l\bar{u}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$, to-say-give, to explain; $g\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$, to-wear-measure, to try on clothes; $\bar{a}p$ - $k\bar{e}$, to-shoot-kill, to shoot to death, etc.

Daflā:

 $n\bar{a}$ -len, to-take-come-out, to take out; ben-nyā, to-sing-finish, to finish singing; $k\bar{a}$ -chin, to-see-know, to recognize; $g\hat{a}$ -kā, to-wear-see, to try on clothes, etc. The different members of a compound may be separated by intervening words. Thus, $h\hat{a}$ $\bar{a}b$ ha $n\bar{a}m$ $arr\bar{u}$ hok len \bar{a} -t- $k\bar{u}$ ha-tla, then father that came-out 'enter-now' said, then the father came out and asked him to enter. Len and ha here form a kind of compound. In this way all co-ordinate verbs may be treated, it being unnecessary to add the tense suffixes more than once in a sentence.

Causals are formed by suffixing the verb 'to do,' Miri $m\bar{o}$, Daflā ma or m. Thus, Miri $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{o}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, to-wear-cause; Daflā \bar{u} -m-tella, to-go-caused, sent. The verb $m\bar{o}$ or ma is also used alone, and sometimes also used as the first component of a compound. Thus, Miri sim in- $k\bar{a}$ -lok $m\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{u}$ -na, this what-from make? what is this made of? $m\bar{o}$ -pet, to-do-tear, to tear; Daflā $m\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{u}m$, to waste; $m\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}b$, to kiss.

Desideratives are formed by adding $l\ddot{u}$ or ling-a in Miri, and nu in Daflā. Thus, Miri $ng\dot{a}$ \bar{a} - $s\bar{\iota}$ $t\ddot{u}$ - $l\ddot{u}$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, I water drink-wishing-am, I wish to drink water; Daflā $ng\dot{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -nu- $d\dot{a}$, I wish to see. The verb mui, to wish, is preceded by the infinitive. See Infinitive of purpose above.

The suffix of potentiality is $l\bar{a}$. Thus, Miri $ng\acute{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, I can see; $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{u}$ $l\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}$ -pui-ai, they could tell; Daflā $ng\acute{a}$ ta- $l\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{u}$ -dna, I to-hear-able-am. Miri also possesses another suffix veg; thus, $ng\acute{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -veg- $d\bar{u}ng$, I can see.

Other words added in order to form compound verbs are:-

Miri:

 $\bar{a}m$ and in, all, completely; $d\bar{\imath}$, perhaps, probably; $g\bar{o}r$, quickly; $k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m$, nearly; $k\bar{\imath}u$, back, again; $p\bar{a}k$, out, away; $p\bar{o}$, first; $t\bar{\imath}-\hat{a}$, always, etc. Thus, $d\hat{a}-\bar{a}m-t\bar{\imath}ug-\bar{a}m$, to-eat-all-drink-all, to waste; $s\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m-t\bar{\imath}ur-k\bar{\imath}r\bar{a}m-d\bar{\imath}ug$, dying-nearly-living-nearly-am, I am on the point of death; $b\bar{o}m-t\bar{o}-k\bar{\imath}u$, I brought back; $m\bar{e}-p\bar{a}k$, to put away, to transgress; $k\bar{a}-p\bar{o}-t\bar{o}$, he saw first; $g\bar{o}r\bar{\imath}u$ $g\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}-\hat{a}-d\bar{\imath}ug-a\bar{\imath}$, cow going-always-was, the now used to go.

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$Daflar{a}$:

 \bar{a} giving an intensive force to the compound; cho, first; ki and $y\bar{a}k$, forming frequentatives; $k\bar{u}$, back, again; $l\bar{a}$, away; $ly\bar{u}m$, entirely; $m\bar{\imath}n$, together; $m\bar{\imath}r$, wrongly; $r\bar{\imath}u$, towards, etc. Thus, $d\hat{a}$ - $a\bar{\imath}u$, to sit down; pat-aga-ki-danna, the bird is always flying; nga $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -gel- $k\bar{\imath}u$, I found again; mindui $s\bar{\imath}$ - $ly\bar{\imath}um$ -namma, buffaloes die-entirely-did, all the buffaloes died; $s\hat{a}$ - $m\bar{\imath}n$ -da-ba, dancing-together-for, in order to feast; nga $ly\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{\imath}ur$ -tella, I did-

wrongly, I sinned; ha ben-rū-namma, he said-towards, he answered.

The **Negative particle** is $m\tilde{a}$, in Miri also $m\tilde{a}ng$. It may be put before or after the tense suffixes. These latter suffixes are, however, usually dropped in the negative form. Thus,

Miri:

ai-mà-na, good-not-being, bad; ngá nītōm mō-māng-ai, I sing did-not, I did not sing; ngá ē-lū-lá dū-māng-ai, I boat-in was-not; ngá mē-pāk-tō-māng, I transgressed not; bui dū-māng, he did not stay, etc.

The suffix $g\bar{e}$ is substituted for $y\bar{e}$ before the negative particle in the future; thus, bui $ng\bar{o}m$ $p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, he me strike-will-not, he will not strike me. The same suffix $g\bar{e}$ occasionally also occurs in other forms. Thus, $g\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{e}$ -to- $k\bar{a}$, go; $d\hat{a}$ - $g\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -ser- $l\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{e}$, eating let-us-make-merry, let us eat and make merry.

 $K\bar{a}$ is substituted for $d\bar{u}ng$, to be, in the negative form. Thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}$ - $l\hat{a}$ \bar{e} - $ng\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}ng$, river-in fish is-not, there is no fish in the river.

The Interrogative particles are na, \tilde{a} , $y\ddot{u}$, and $l\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$. After the future in $p\ddot{u}$ only \bar{a} is used. $Y\ddot{u}$ is a disjunctive particle, and $l\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ is the negative interrogative. Thus, \bar{e} - $k\bar{u}m$ -a in- $k\acute{a}$ - $l\acute{a}$ $d\bar{u}$ -na, house where is? where is the house? $n\acute{a}$ $ng\bar{o}m$ $b\bar{v}$ -pui-a, thou me-to give wilt? will you give it to me? \bar{a} - $s\bar{v}$ -a a- $r\bar{v}$ - $d\bar{u}$ - $y\ddot{u}$, is the water deep (or not)? $n\acute{a}$ $g\bar{v}$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$ -a, didst thou not go?

Daflā:

īk-ha chem-mā-denna, dog-the biting-notis, the dog does not bite; $ny\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}kk$ ne-khrām hog-jā ji-mā-tella, man one even anything gave-not, nobody gave him anything; $ng\acute{a}$ -lu chem-mā, we know-not; $ng\acute{a}$ d \acute{a} -t-mā, I was-not; ha ma-d-mā, he will not strike, etc.

The Interrogative particle is $ly\bar{e}$. It is usually omitted when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. $Y\bar{u}$ is, however, often added after hog-ba, why? Thus, ishi \bar{u} - $r\bar{a}$ -dan- $ly\bar{e}$, is the water deep? $h\hat{a}$ $\hat{a}ddan$ ha hog ma-dna, this sound this what is? what is this sound?

Other words are freely used as verbs. Thus, Miri $b\acute{a}$ -ta- $r\~{u}$ -na $\~{a}$ - $k\~{a}l$ - $t\~{o}$, great-verybeing famine-arose; $k\~{e}$ - $m\~{o}$ - $y\~{e}$, it will get dark; Dafl $\~{a}$ $s\~{a}$ sat ta-ba- $ly\~{e}$, this elephant male is? is this a male elephant? $ng\~{a}$ Podu-ga $k\~{a}$ -a, I Podu's son-am; $h\~{a}$ $ny\~{t}$ ha au-denna, this man this tall-is.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The direct object precedes the indirect one in Miri, but follows it in Daflā. In interrogative sentences Miri agrees with Daflā.

[No. 2.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

DAFLĀ.

SPECIMEN 1.

(R. C. Hamilton, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

Lok āk nyī dâ-tlā, kâ a-nyi-gâ dâ-tlēya. Ainyâ-vă-a āb Once manonewas, 80*ns* twowere. Young-more father hām benma, 'āb-â, ngâl-ga darāb hokngā-p nemma sī-jā jibba.' the-to said. father, our property from me-to sharenow . give.' Hâ āb büll-ba ha darāb hām pen-jī-tlā. Ηâ kâ-kuâ Then father thethem-to property thedivided-gave. That after ainvâ-vā ha ā-pa-gâ dâ-tla müga darāb mūllī-ja hām nū-lai-ella thedays-few young-more staying hisproperty allthatgathering gūdā-ba ū-nna. ã-dâ Ηâ gūdā hâ nyedai-nyet-ma-min-la darab-patch far country-to went. Thatcountry that-in merry-making property mūllūngām mâ-yūm-tella. Hab mâ-yūm-tella dâd-kâ-hâ hâ gūdā allwasted. Thus wasted-having remaining-while that country hâ demā dūrrē ū-tlā, mü-g ai ho-b da-pā-mā-tla. Ηâ hâ that-in great famine arose, hisbelly that-for to-eat-got-not. Then that gūdā-ga nyī āk-ga dâk hâ ā-tlā. Ηâ nyī hē rongâ-hâ. one-of country-of man presence that-in went. That man thatfields-in, 'illvi kā-il-yā-tâ,' ka ha-l ū-m-tella. Illyi da-nām da-nām aihi tend, that'pigs sayinggo-made. Pigseaten eaten seedsthat-from da-lū-da-ba ai hâ-b mū-tlā; nyī ākk ne-khrām hâ nyī hām belly the-for eat-full-to wished; man one even that man that-to hog-jā ji-mā. Hen-dād-lā ha benma, ngâ āb-ga nyerrā-atchām ha anything gave-not. Senses-recovering he said, my father's servants they ūttü anyinâ da-dba kā-pā-tella, dellē dekhyenga dâ-dba kā-pā-tella, ngâ eat-to found, bread enough excesssuperfluous remain-to found, I kā-nâ-ba sī-lyā-sū-tailyē. da-pa-yā-mā-ba Ngâ **s**âkka ãb-ga dâk to-eat-find-not-as hunger-with die-am-about-to. \boldsymbol{I} here-from father's presence "āb, hà ū-t-lyinne ben-tailne, lā ūī-son hām $n\bar{a}m$ lā nå-nyām ngâ say-will, "father, thee-to and the-in go-will Godtoandyou-two-to lyi-mür-tella; kâ hab lyi-yā-kū-mā. $n\hat{a}$ Ngām nâ nyerrā-atchām did-more-not. did-wrong; thy Mesonthyservants lyī-m-ta-ba."' lvī-dna-ba Hab mū-lā-ella hâkka müg āb-ga Thus work-as work-make." thought-having that-from his father's VOL. III, PART I. 4 н 2

Okka dâk-ba ū-tlā. ādâ ü-il-nām āb ha kā-pā-tella far-off Butcoming father the presence-to went. see-happening yâ-rū-lā lūpā gar-gāb-lā mā-pūb-tella. Kâ-a ai-ā-mū-pā-lā benma, 'āb, running-towards neck embracing kissed. Son said, 'father, pitying ūī-son hām lā nâ-nyām lyī-mūr-tella; $n\bar{a}m$ lā ngâ nâ kâ hab I thee-too and God and you-two-to did-wrong; thy 80n as lviyā-kū-mā.' Okka āb ha nyerrā-atchām hām benma, 'ngâ müllīja did-more-not. But father the servants the-to said,'my allgarments $h\bar{a}m$ āl-yā-nn a-nū-ba ezz hām nā-len-gadlā $s\bar{a}m$ thangood-more-being garment thequickly taking-out-bringing himkâ-m-tâ, $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -l $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ hâ $t\bar{a}$ letchlâ ga-m-tâ, āl hâ lukhlâ ${f t}ar{f a}$ ga-m-tâ, sa ringput-on-let, hand on alsoput, foot on shoe alsoput, cow bō-ā-gad-ala kâ jit-nām sâ ha-n pakhr-tâ, ngâl da-tlyinn ā-hâ female young fatted here bringing kill, we eat-will heart-in khrūm-dba. Hog-ba hab lyi-tlyinne? ngâ kâ sī ūī mnâk lâk content-to. Whythus do-shall? my 80n thisghost country from ha-lvi-ba, chā-lin-lyi-k-na kā-pā-gel-kū; nyinam, kā-pā-gel-kū.' Hokka rise-out-does-again-who like. (I-)saw-again;lost,(I-) saw-again. Then büllü lyi-rāb-namma. så-min-dab they dance-together-to began.

a-bū Okka kâ ha rongâ hâ lyi-tla. Rongâ hokka ū-k-na nām elderButthatfields inworked.Fieldsfrom returning house. ü-ly-kū-lā dūm-dūm â-gum-hâ tāl toppū ma $l\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ sâ-mīn lā coming-back drumnear cymbalflute playing and dancing and ta-pā-tella. âdna-mām Ηâ nyerrā ākk-gá gâ-la tach-namma. ' hâ heard. Then sound-making servant one calling asked, 'thatma-dna?' Nyerrā ha âddan ha hog benma, 'nâ bor ha thatwhatmakes?' sound Servant the said, 'thy younger-brother that nâ ü-t-kū-la, āb nâ bor-am ālla ū-k-namma father come-back-having, thy thyyounger-brother well returned kā-pā-kū-la sa kâ jītna hām pakh-lā. Hām tātlā hā-hā-ālla seen-again-having young fat cow thatkilled. Thishearing angry-being ā-k-mā-tlā. $n\bar{a}m$ hâ Ηâ āb ha nām arrü hok len, house the-in entered-not. Then father the house insidefrom came-out, 'ā-t-kū,' ha-tla. Okk ha hām ben-rū-namma, ãb 'taiā, tasinā, But'come-inside.' said. he father the-to answered. 'hear, look. ha-da āllâ nām nyī müllā ${
m n}{
m \hat{a}}$ benām hām tellū-tella-lā on-behalf-of so-many years days-in theethywordthatobeyed-having-and ā-zin-orūm lag-hâ lyī-t-namma, okka ngâ da-tā-ba så-min-daba nâ sibin worked, butmy friends witheating-for feasting-for thou goatdor-g khrām okka ji-mā; ${f n}ar{f a}$ kâ ha nâ darāb-patch nū-lā-ella one even gavest-not; butthyson that thy property taking-away

DAFLĀ. 605

hām kâ jītnām sâ-lū-pela ũ-d-kũ-n lag-ba \mathbf{sa} nyemm fattedthat-to young feasted-having returning cow withwomen ۴kâ, $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{\hat{a}}$ ngâ lag-ba pakh-jī-ā-khrām-nyā.' Āb benma, ha thoumewith**Father** thesaid, '80n, kill-give-even-didst.' ngâ darāb-patch müllū-sī nâ-ka mā-ba Okka hog-ba hī-ga? dâ-ki-sū-dna, whose? But why not-if all-this thineremainest-always, my property tūr-dâ-dâ; nyīm-tella, si-tla. bor ha hab lyī-mā-tailne? Nâ Thy younger-brother this died-having, alive-is; lost-being, thus do-not-shall? kā-pā-gel-kū.' found-again-is.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. North Assam Group.

DAFLÄ.

SPECIMEN II.

(R. C. Hamilton, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

Oml dâk tāl-ba āp-denna. ōpū-hâ oml Nyi-sing-a Ngå-lu poison put. Poison place up-to arrows-on WeDaflās ū-dba lyi-d-ne-pü. Ngâ-lu la bar-g-ba sâka pol halvi nanga be-will. Weone-aboutgo-to moon plains villages here-from and pā-dna. Oml sün-a chā nā-l ū-t-mā, Aiang-a omlNyī-sing-a hâ Poison teaAbors poison bringing supply. treeDaflās there go-not, $\mathbf{h}\mathbf{\hat{a}}$ dâ-dna. \mathbf{Mem} eyin hab lyi-dna. Oml-a sün mem lyī-dna. sün-a hab Poison tree root inis.Root potato thus is. thusis.treejelyű hâ dâ-dna; ūllū dū-l nā-dna. Sün ha hokka Ked take. Treethemarshy-ground is;stony digging Ground from derā dâ-dna; há â-gūm-hâ dūr tāppām-a då-dne. lün â-gūm-hâ thatnear summer winter 8now remains. is; rocknear Tab műlli-gå då-dne. sâtne au-wâ tab nyī har-po lün Ullū snakes many are. Snakes' girthman's legrock top-on Stony chanyi haba lyi-dna; e-hi hom-gâ āssâ-denna. Kāyā-ba ${
m l}ar{
m a}$ dâ-dne. andBlackishyellowlikeare; teeth three (-fingers) long-are. is.nā-tā-ba ü-lyām Nyi-e che-lyām, sī-dna. oml ūllū nyi-am Tab-a dies.Men biting, poison bring-to coming stone top Snake man pâl-lā nyī-am che-dna. Nyī nikhrü hokka illyi ā-ngâ-ne tab-a hokka bite.Men twenty snakes dropping men fromtenfive-or from porâ illyi che-dna. Oppo sab sa lâ-lā ũī pātna, tab-a fowlspigs mithons cows Liquor offering God appease-wish, bite.snakes nyadang-a hodna; ishi $t\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ pā-mā-lyām oml kā-pā-mā-dna; ũĩ appeased-not rainfalls; down-coming poison watersee-cannot; Godsi-dna. Oml-a a-hâ mülling a ãb-na a-nū-ba sī-dna, ā-lâ-hâ nyī die. Poison body-in striking quickly many die, men arm-in sī-dna. Aiāng-a dorob chen-dna, hāsobba ngâ-lu āb-na chem-mā. $oldsymbol{Abors}$ die. antidote slowly know, weknow-not. striking āb-nām nyī hām kâ Oml bū-na nyemm-a khrâ-tā-lyām āl struckman thatchildbearing Poison woman stepping-over wellhatna; nyī ūī hām du-k-na issha tâ-yâ-tella tū-lyām āl say; man's bloodthatbecomes-ayain water mixing drinking well hatna. du-k-na say. becomes-again

DAFLĀ. 607

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

We Daflas tip our arrows with poison. The place where it is obtained is a month's journey from the plains. We Daflas do not go there, the Abors bring it down. The tree yielding the poison is like a tea tree; the poison is in the root, which is like a potato and is dug out of the earth. The bushes grow on level ground near a great rock, round which snow lasts all the year round. On the top of it are many snakes, the largest being as big round as a man's leg. They are black and yellow, with teeth three fingers' breadth in length. If one bites a man, he dies. When men come to dig for the poison, the snakes drop down from the top of the rock and bite them; out of twenty they bite five or ten.

The men offer up liquor, fowls, pigs, mithon, and cows in order to appease God. If they do not, rain falls and the floods cover the poison place, and many men are killed.

A man struck on the body with a poisoned arrow dies at once; but if struck on the arm he dies after a few hours. The Abors know of an antidote; we do not.

But they say that if a woman who has just borne a child steps over the wounded man he recovers, also if he drinks human blood mixed with water.

[No. 4.]

NORTH ASSAM GROUP. TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

MIRI.

SPECIMEN I.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1896.)

(DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)

Āmē-na² au-da bui-ka ābū-em Āmī bui-ka au ānyīkā dūngai. ākō existed. The-younger son-he Man a-certain him-of sons twohis father-to bī-kā.' Dēlō āttār kösāg-em bū-lūm lū-tō, 'bābū, ngâ-ka hui 'father. give-(me). Then he them-to said, myof-(our)-property share orshū-lā bī-tō. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}$ ānjāna-da³ **a**i-ka ēkūm-lâ long bâjē dūāttār-em small-thethe-property dividing gave. Son his-own home-at days many stay-Bui-ka āpuidem läng-kūm-lä4 mōē-na māng. āttār deg ākon-lâ did-not. allcollecting-together Hisa-far country property some-to āpuing-em sīmāt-kēshā-pü⁵ dâām-tungām-tō.6 gī-lā ai-ka āttār (he)-went-away-(and) his-own property allfoolishly wasted. āttār apuing-em sīmāt-kēshā-pü dâām-tüngām rosim Bui-ka deg da lâ allin-a-foolish-manner His property wasting after country that in bâta-rū-na ākāl'-tō; bui-ka⁸ dâ-nam sin kā-tō-māng. Dēlō bui da a-mighty famine-occurred; his food even he-had-not. Then he that country-of ākon9-lâ āger-i-kā-pü10 gi-kāng; āmī āmī da buim ārēg-lâ ēek man a-certain-with work-to went: man that him the-field-into swine āpīn-bī-kā-pü malik-tō. Bui kenō-rū12-dūngai. Dēpīlā ēek āmpü-em bui He^{11} to-feed sent.hungry-very-was. Therefore the-pigs husksdâ-lü-dūngai; dâlü-dākkōm¹³ dânam bī-na kāmāng. to-eat-wishing-was; although-desirous-(of-food) food given there-was-not.

¹ had two sons is rendered 'his two sons existed'; buika is genitive of bui, he.

² na is the termination of a relative participle.

³ da is merely the demonstrative pronoun used here for emphasis and recognition; au-anjana-da meaning 'the younger son in question.

 $^{^4}$ $l\bar{a}$ ng- $k\bar{u}ml\bar{a}$ is a compound verb meaning 'to collect, gather together.'

s = s = mat = fool, k = s = k = mat = fool, k = s = s = mat = fool, k = s = s = fool, k = fool,

⁶ Miris (like the Assamese) have no word equivalent to our word 'waste' and no words to express 'riotous living.' 'Wasted his substance in riotous living' would be rendered tar bastu hakal kai phelaile in Assamese and it is the same in Miri, viz., daam-tungam-to = (literally) ate and drank everything.

 $[\]bar{a} \, k \bar{a} l$ is the Assamese word for famine. Miris have no word.

buika danam sin kātōmāng means lit. 'His food even existed not,' i.e., he had not even food.

 $^{^{9}}$ $\bar{a}m\bar{i}$ - $\bar{a}kon = man$ -someone.

 i^{10} $\bar{a}ger\cdot\bar{i}\cdot k\bar{a}\cdot p\ddot{u}$ is a compound verb meaning to do work. $K\bar{a}\cdot p\ddot{u}$ is the sign of the infinitive of purpose.

¹¹ This is the only construction possible to make this portion of the parable comprehensible in Miri.

This $r\bar{u}$ is a superlative particle, for instance ai, good; ai- $r\bar{u}$, very good; $bat\bar{e}$, big, large; bate- $r\bar{u}$, very large.

¹³ Adverbial participle; dākkōm here means 'although,'

Bui-ka sīmāt-aidâ-kū-dem hui lū-tō, 'ngâ-ka bābū-ka¹ pāk-bō-kiding-ka² Hissenses-recovering-upon he said, 'my father's slaves' dânam ngat-dâ, ngâ aiyü kenő-la sikiram-türkiram düng. having-sufficed also remains-over, I myself hungering at-death's-door food Ngâ bābū lå gī-lā lū-pü, "ngâ Ishar4 $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}$ tē nōm pāp-ī-tō. I (my) father to going say-will, "I God against and yourself andsin-did. nâ-ka au-pü ngôm gâg-yō-vong-kā,5 ngōm pāk-bō-pü mē-to-kā." your son-like me call-no-longer, mea-slave-like keep." Then bābū là gī-kāng, mōtē lokke bui-ka bābū buim kā-lā bui ai-ka he his-own went. far from hisfather him seeing pitied (him). Bui-ka goldon6 lâ ōlet-lā māmpuk-tō. bui-ka bābū-em lū-tō, Au-da upon falling (he)-kissed-(him). The-son-he Hisneck hisfather-to said, 'ngâ Ishar me tē nōm tē pāp-i-tō, dē-pī-lā ngâ nâ-ka 'I God against and yourself and sin-did, consequently I your kēshā-mā.' au Bui-ka bābū ai-ka pāk-bō-kiding-em lū-tō, **8**0n like-am-not.' Hisfather slaves-to his-own said. 'gāsor āpui-lokem-pünam-aina-kâ bōm-lā buim gē-mō-tokā; bui-ka ālāk all-from-than-good-one 'robe having-brought him put-it-on; his finger lâ āngūtī-ākâ,7 bui-ka ālē Ιâ tē jūtāng⁸ gē-mō-tokā; ngâ-lù āpīn-dâgē-lā ring-a, hisfeet upon also shoes put; eating āser-lājē. Ngâ-lū-ka au sim sī-lā, tūr-dūng-kū; yog-la, be-merry-let. Ourthis having-died, has-returned-to-life-again; being-lost, pā-tō-kū. ${f Dar e}{f lar o}$ bū-lū āser-tō. (he-has)-been-found-again. Then they made-merry.

āser-dâ-dem9 Bü-lū bui-ka ābuiā-na au ārēg lâ dūngai: bui They while-were-merrying10 his eldestson the-fields was: hemākshâ-shânām11 lāng dūmdūm-dü12-nām-em tat-tō. ai-ka ēkūm pui-lā Bui his-own house (on)-nearing dancing and drumming heard. He'kāpī-kān ngâ-lū-ka ēkūm là?' pākbō ākâ gâg-lā tau-tō, Pāk-bō lū-tō. calling asked, 'what-matter our house at?' The-slave said. slave pui-dūng-kū; ' nâ-ka buirâ ai-pü nà-ka bābū āmī-em dē-pī-lā · your brother safely has-returned-again; consequently your father men

ka = possessive case suffix.

² kiding is an adjective used to denote plurality.

³ sīkīram tūrkīram is a colloquial phrase meaning 'on the point of death.'

⁴ Ishar is an Assamese word. Miris have no word for God. They believe in spirits called $Oy\bar{u}$.

This is the only manner in which the sentence 'Am no more worthy to be called thy son' can be rendered in Miri, viz., 'call me no longer your son.' Vong is a completive particle, yo kā the negative imperative case suffix.

goldon is an Assamese word. Miris have no other word for neck.

⁷ angūtī is also an Assamese word, Miris having no word for a ring, though they wear many.

 $^{^{}s}$ $j\bar{u}t\bar{a}ng$ is from the Hindostani word $j\bar{u}t\bar{a}$, a shoe.

⁹ dâdem is the sign of the adverbial participle.

¹⁰ This sentence 'While they were merrying' is necessary in Miri in order to carry on the sense.

¹¹ mākshā shānām is a compound verb meaning 'to dance.'

 $d\ddot{u}$ is to beat a drum. $D\ddot{u}md\ddot{u}m = \text{drum}$; $d\ddot{u}md\ddot{u}m \ d\ddot{u}n\ddot{a}m$, to beat a drum. VOL. III, PART I.

āpīn-em-dâ-mō-dūng.' Dēlō ābuiá-na da gâg-lā bū-lū-m au Then the them feeding-is.' elder having-called-(together) son ārā-lâ bābū gī-len-lā buim āglī-lā ēkūm gī-pü-mui-māng. Bui-ka angering the-house within-to go-will-wished-not. Hisfather going-out him kūm-lā gōk-tō. Abuiā-na au da ai-ka bābū-em lū-tō, ' nâ-ka āgēr entreating called. Elder son the his-own father-to said, 'your work dūtāk bâjē-rung-ka lok-ke ngâ ī-dūng. Lēkōtē nâ-ka āgōm-em ngầ many I am-doing. Any-time years fromyour orders I mē-pāk-tō-māng. Mē-pāk-māng-kōm nâ ngōm ājon-kiding dâ-mō-kā-pü disregarded-have-not. Not-disregarding-though you me-to (my)-friends to-feed sāgōlī-ka sin lēkōtē Nâ-ka ănjâ-na au bī-māng. au bui nâ-ka a-goat-of the-young even ever gave-not. Your younger he your ātt**ār-**em sīmāt-pü dâām-tüngām-tō-vong, idākkōm nâ buim bhoi1 property in-a-foolish-manner has-wasted-completely, but you hima-feast Bui-ka bābū lū-tō, 'aua, nâ bī-dūng.' ngâ-ka-lâ āgin-pü dung; ngâ-ka are-giving.' father said, His'son, you me-with always are; my āttār āpuidem nâ-ka; nâ-ka buirâ sī-lā, tūr-dūng-kū; all(is)-yours; your brother being-dead, has-returned-to-life-again; property yog-lā, pā-dūng-kū; dē-pī-lā ngâ-lũ kāndūai.' $\bar{a}ser$ being-lost, has-been-found-again; therefore happy ought-to-be.'

¹ bhoj is an Assamese word. Miris have no word for feast.

[No. 5.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY. NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

MIRI.

STANDARD DIALECT.

SPECIMEN I.

(F. J. Needham, Esq., 1899.) (DISTRICT LAKHIMPUR.)										
Sī	gūsōr		ainam.²					lâpīō-kā-p	•	•
This	case	this i	s-false.	I	at-his	hor	use	to-steal	did	-not- $go.$
$f Ag\ddot{o}m$	sim-	ρü	dūng.	Ngâ-	ka	monyir	$_{ m lg}$	Dhonirā	\mathbf{m}	lok -k e
Words	this-u	; ise	are.	My	,	last-yea	ar.	Dhanire	im	from
rēnām	görü d	a yök-l	ai. Görü	da da	adana	ai-pü	ngâ	kādāk	kŏm	ākūna
purchase d	cow i	t was-l	ost. Cou	it ho	noever	well	I	cared-for	-though	old
rūtūm-ka	ēkūm-	lâ gī	tī-â-dūng	ai;	dēpīl	lā le	-nyī	lem-ūm-	kâ ngấ	gi-lā
master's	house-t	o goin	g-always-	was;	therefo	re t	wice	three-tim	es I	$goin oldsymbol{g}$
bōm-tō-kī	i. Dho	nirām-k	a lū-dâ	longå-	dem n	ıgâ dâ	nyī•wā	i rosim	bui-ka	ēkūm
brought-ba	ck. Dl	aniram	said	day-	in	I s	un -s et	after	his	house
lā ai-ka	gōrū	mata-kā	-pü gi-k	kā.	Ngâ b	ui-ka	bārī	ārā	dâ köi	nō-malō
to my-own		search-	for wer	ıt.	I	his c	compou	nd thro	ug t l	befo re
kēsbā	gī-g	ōr-dâ-de	m.	Dhon	irā m- ka	a buii	·ma	mui m b u i	r-da	āsī
like stro	lling-ab	out-at-th	e-t i me-of	Dha	ni r ām's	sist	ter ti	he-grown-	up-one	water
ki-ling b	oom-lā	gī-dūn	g. Dēl	ō ker	nō-kāvī	ng; b	oui ng	gōm bhữ	it pü	kā-lā
pitcher br	ring in g	coming	is. The	n it-a	was-dar	$\cdot k$; s	he n	ne ghos	st like	seei n g
ngom-tō.	Dēlō	bui-ka	ēkūm	āmī-k	iding4	läng	Dhon	irām gi	i-len-lā	$ng\bar{o}m$
screamed.	Then	her	house	peo_{j}	ple	and	Dhan	irām con	ming-out	t me
gāg-tō,	gāg-lā							ıbuir si		ō-kā-pü
seized.	seizing	(or havid	ig seized	me) s	aid	' you	young	-girl thi	is to	-steal
gī-dūng.'	Sim	ı āgön	n sim	Dhoni	rām	polis-er	n lū	-tō, bear	ng mē	lām-pü
are-coming.	' This	s story	this	Dhani	rām j	police-t	to to	old, bu	t after	rwards
ādālot lâ	bui	āngū-p	i lū-tō.	Bui	dēlō	lū-tō	$ \frac{ng\hat{a}}{a} $	bui-ka	ai	dâpīō
Court in	he d	lifferentl	y said.	He	then	said	I	his	fruit	stealing
dungai, M			rsing ta							
	ālōtī	me	t r ee	in	seo-firs	t- did .				

The second si is used for emphasis.
 Moinam is an adjective used as a verb.

³ Dápiō-kā-pü is the infinitive of purpose; dápiō is the root of the verb.
4 Kiding is the sign of the plural.
5 Ursing taiō-lū means lit. 'tree top in.'

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

This case is false. I did not go to steal anything at his house. The facts are these. I missed my cow which I had bought from Dhanirām a year ago. The cow though carefully kept by me used to visit her former owner's house very often, and I had to go and fetch her several times. On the day referred to by Dhanirām I went to his house to see if my cow had gone there. That was after sunset. I walked through his compound as usual to see whether my cow was straying there. It so happened that at the time his sister Mālōtī, a grown-up girl of 18 years, came to the compound with a water-pot in her hand. It was then nearly dark. She saw me unexpectedly going towards her though I myself had not noticed her. She got frightened and screamed as if she thought I was a ghost. The people of the house, including Dhanirām, came and seized me, saying that I had come there to visit the girl. That was the story Dhanirām told to the Police, but in the Court, in order to hide the shame of the sister, he gives out that I was stealing his mangoes and that Mālōtī saw me first on the tree.

MISHMI.

The Mishmis inhabit the mountains lying north of the Assam Valley from the Dibang River in the west to about the Lama valley or Dzayul, a sub-prefecture of Lhassa, in the east. They have been found in settlements as far south as the Nemlang River, an offshoot of the Irawaddy, and their colonies sweep round to the east of the great mountain called the Dapha Bhum, and then up the Brahmaputra proper to the confines of Tibet.

The Mishmi villages to the south of the Brahmaputra are scattered and mixed up with Khāmtī and Singphō settlements. To the north and west we find the tribe in possession of the whole country.

'The Mishmis,' says Lieutenant G. L. S. Ward, 'are small, active, wiry men, with very high cheek bones, flat noses and a general Mongolian cast of feature.'

Their country is rugged and difficult of access. There has, therefore, been little intercourse between them and the British. Only 220 Mishmis have been returned for this Survey as living within British territory. They are found in the north-east of Lakhimpur, on the south side of the Brahmaputra. At the last Census of 1901 only 71 speakers were returned.

There are four main divisions of the Mishmis, each sub-divided into numerous minor clans. The four divisions are Chulikātā, Bebejiya, Digāru, and Mījū.

The Chulikātā Mishmis are settled on both banks of the Dibang River and, to the east of it, so far at the Digāru River. Some of the larger and richer villages are situated at the Dibang north of Kaladoi towards Tibet. They are the most numerous tribe of the Mishmis.

The name Chulikātā is used by the Assamese in order to denote the tribe. It means 'crop-haired' and is used because the Chulikātās crop their front hair on the forehead. They call themselves Midu, or, according to Mr. Robinson, Nedu.

Our knowledge of the dialect of this tribe is based on a list of standard words and phrases in Sir George Campbell's Specimens, which has been reprinted below.

The Bebejiyas or outcast Mishmis occupy the valleys of the Ithun River and its tributaries, between the Chulikātās and the Digārus. The Ithun is a tributary of the Dibang River which it joins at Kaladoi village (about 28° 25' north latitude). The Bebejiyas extend towards the high ranges of the Southern Tibet border on the north, and on the south they are bordered by the Chulikātās. Bebejiya is an Assamese name; they call themselves Mithun.

The Bebejiya dialect is said to be almost identical with Chulikātā. The two tribes also agree in appearance and dress, and they cut their hair in the same manner. They do not, however, intermarry.

The Digārus are settled in the mountains between the Digāru River and the Brahmaputra. They are also called Tārōã, Taiu or Taying, and Meme Mishmis.

Their language has been dealt with by Mr. Robinson. A list of words has been printed by Sir George Campbell, and another one by Mr. J. F. Needham. I have printed a list based on Messrs. Robinson and Needham.

The Mejus or Mījūs are settled to the east of the Dīgārus and extend towards the Lama valley or Dzayul, a sub-prefecture of Lhassa. Their language is known from

accounts written by Messrs. Robinson and Needham. The list of standard words and phrases printed below has been compiled from both.

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Campbell, Sir George,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the Aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Sulikātā and Digarū Mishmee on pp. 239 and ff.

NEEDHAM, J. F.,—A few Dîgârô (Târoan), (Mijû) (M'jû), and Thibetian words collected during a trip from Sadiya to Rima and back in December 1885 and January 1886. s. l. and a.

GAIT, E. A.,—Census of India, 1891. Assam, Vol. I.—Report. Shillong, 1892. Note on the language on p. 186.

WARD, LIEUTENANT G. L. S., —Military Report on the Mishmi Country published by the Intelligence Branch, Quarter Master General's Department. Simla, 1901.

The language spoken by the Mishmis is split up into dialects, but all these seem to agree in several points. The remark made by the Rev. N. Brown that Mishmi possesses several very peculiar tones, probably applies to all dialects. We are not, however, informed of the nature of these tones. They perhaps correspond to those current in Tibetan.

CHULIKATA.

The Chulikātā dialect is apparently closely related to Digāru Mishmi. The list of standard words and phrases published by Sir George Campbell, which is all we know of this dialect, contains several misprints, and it is not sufficient to serve as the basis of a grammatical sketch. It is not possible to do more than to draw attention to a few facts.

A prefix \tilde{a} or a plays a great $r\delta le$ in the formation of nouns and adjectives; thus, a-khmo, hand; a-mihu, fire; a-kuna, ear; $\tilde{a}\text{-}ku$, wife; $\tilde{a}\text{-}nom\tilde{a}$, near, etc. E, i, and u are used in the same way. Thus, e-nabo, nose; $e\text{-}l\tilde{a}by\tilde{a}$, eye; e-kura, head; eppo, slave; i-ni, sun; $i\text{-}k\tilde{u}$, dog; u-ka, house, etc. Corresponding prefixes are used in Daffa, Miri, and the other Mishmi dialects.

The prefix ma in ma-ji, water, is also found in Digāru $m\bar{a}-ch\bar{\iota}$, water, etc. $N\bar{a}$ is used as a prefix in the words $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, father, and $n\bar{a}-ni$, mother, corresponding to Digāru $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ respectively. Ni in $n\bar{a}-ni$ corresponds to Miri and Daflā $\bar{a}-ne$, mother.

Nouns.—Some of the suffixes used to denote gender are identical in Chulikātā and Digāru. The word for woman is $i\bar{a}h$ in Chulikātā which is identical with $y\bar{a}$ in Digāru $m\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$, woman. This latter form occurs in Chulikātā a-myau, child female, daughter, corresponding to Digāru $m\bar{\imath}-y\bar{a}$ \bar{a} . The female suffix a-pi, in Chulikātā corresponds to Digāru $t\bar{a}-p\bar{\imath}$, and the female suffix kro to Digāru $kr\bar{u}$.

The plural is formed in the usual way by adding words meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. Most of the plural forms enumerated in the list are difficult to analyse, and different words are used in each case. $D\bar{u}$ in e- $k\bar{u}$ $d\bar{u}$, dogs, corresponds to Digāru $d\bar{u}$, many. In $n\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ e- $j\bar{a}$, fathers, e- $j\bar{a}$ perhaps means 'ail'; compare $z\bar{a}$ and $j\bar{a}$, all, in Lushēi and

connected languages. The plural suffix lumbro in prā lumbro, good men, and other forms, seems to occur in the personal pronoun ngia-lumbro, I, and is probably an honorific or intensifying suffix.

I have not been able to analyse the case suffixes. Ji seems to mean 'to,' or 'from'; jui-bo, of; kepow-ji and $g\bar{a}-jui-bo$, from, etc. The genitive is apparently expressed in the same way as in Digāru by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, new $n\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$ a, thy father's sons.

Adjectives.—The word for 'good' is pra or prai corresponding to Digāru $pr\tilde{a}$. The form prai-bo, good, seems to contain a suffix bo corresponding to Daflā $b\tilde{a}$, and the Tibetan article pa. The final do in ruen-do, high, is perhaps the verb substantive; compare Daflā and Miri $d\tilde{a}$, Digāru $d\tilde{i}$.

The adjectives seem to precede the noun they qualify. The same is, however, the case in Sir George Campbell's Digāru, while Messrs, Robinson and Needham state that the adjective always follows the noun in this dialect.

There is apparently no suffix of the comparative. Thus, ruendo ji iruendo, high from high, higher; tapume ji ruendo, all from high, highest. Tapum prai-bo, all good, best, may be compared with $p\bar{a}ng$ au- $y\bar{a}$, all high-more, highest, in Mr. Robinson's Daflā.

Numerals.—The first five numerals agree with those occurring in Digāru. We may note the prefix $k\bar{a}$ in the numerals $k\bar{a}$ -ni, two; $k\bar{a}$ -sh, three, and $k\bar{a}$ -ppi, four. Compare the prefix g in the corresponding Tibetan numerals. $Il\bar{u}$, eight, corresponds to Digāru illam; khi-li, nine, probably means 'one from ten.' Compare Digāru $keny\bar{o}ng$, Miri $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}ng$. 'Ten' is hush, but another form lon, corresponding to Digāru $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, occurs in ma-nga-lon, fifty. The higher numerals are formed as in Digāru by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten.' Thus, a-ni-hush, twenty; ma-nga-lon, fifty.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns will be found in the list of words. Some of them are very puzzling. Ngia-lumbro, I, is probably an honorific form. A short form nga occurs in new a nga midu hu- $l\bar{a}$ -pata, his son I much beaten-have, I have beaten his son with many stripes. This form corresponds to nga in Daflā and Miri. Ngio, thou, is probably miswritten for nya, and new, thy, is probably identical. The forms for the third person apparently contain many misunderstandings. Ngio $\bar{a}pu$, he, seems to mean something like 'thy companion'; compare Singphō a-paung, friend; Burmese paung, to keep company. Mit and $mim\bar{u}t$, his, seem to correspond to Digāru $mt\bar{a}$, he, and he aibu, they, contains the pronoun $h\bar{e}$ which means 'he' in Digāru and 'that' in Daflā. The same pronoun also occurs in heya, this. In etani, to-day, we apparently have another demonstrative pronoun eta; compare Digāru tai-hing, to-day.

The interrogative pronouns are \bar{a} - $\bar{a}ya$ and asia, who? esia, what? $phi\bar{a}h\bar{a}$, how much? how many? Digāru has $sh\bar{a}$, who? and $m'j\bar{a}$, what?

The conjugation of **Verbs** cannot be explained from the materials at our disposal. The imperative $b\bar{a} \cdot n\bar{a}$, go, seems to correspond to Digāru $b\bar{o} \cdot n\bar{a}$, go, while forms such as $ji - b\bar{a}$, sit; $hi - b\bar{a}$, die; $h\bar{a} - b\bar{a}$, give, etc., contain a suffix $b\bar{a}$ which is used in the same way in Daflā. Most forms, however, are not clear to me.

The preceding remarks on Chulikātā grammar show the close connexion between this dialect and Digāru, and there can be no doubt that they are merely dialects of the same language.

DIGĀRU.

Digāru Mishmi has been dealt with in a short grammatical sketch by Mr. Robinson. The remarks on Digāru grammar which follow are based on this sketch and on the list of words published by Mr. Needham. The spelling is, as far as possible, that of Mr. Needham.

Prefixes.—The most usual prefixes are $m\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$, often abbreviated to m and n, perhaps corresponding to the prefixes ma and n which form nouns and adjectives in Kachin.

 $M\bar{a}$ occurs in words such as $m\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{i}$, buffalo; $m\bar{a}$ -tran, cow; $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, tree; $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$, water; $m's\bar{e}$, navel; $m'sh\bar{i}$, claw; $m'pl\tilde{a}$, stone; m'dang, poor; $m'j\bar{a}$, what? and so on.

 $N\bar{a}$ is usually prefixed to nouns denoting relationship. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, mother; $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$, elder brother, etc. This $n\bar{a}$ is perhaps originally the possessive pronoun of the second person. The same, or a similar, prefix is, however, also used before other nouns. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ -ming, fire; $n'kw\bar{i}$, \log ; $n'g\bar{a}$, near, etc. Compare n' in Kachin.

A prefix $k\bar{a}$ seems to occur in words such as $k\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}$, field; $k\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}$, rain; $k\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$, rat; $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{o}$ -a, dark; $k\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{o}$, quickly. Compare the prefix ka or ga in the Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā languages.

The prefix \bar{a} or a occurs in words such as \bar{a} - $l\bar{\imath}$, bow; \bar{a} - $pr\ddot{u}$, arm; \bar{a} -rui, snow; a- $sh\bar{a}$, mithon, etc. It does not appear to be used in the same way as the prefix a in Kachin and Burmese, in order to form nouns from verbs.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. The gender of human beings is distinguished by using different words. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, mother: $p\bar{a}mr\bar{o}$, brother; $m\bar{a}$ - $th\bar{\imath}$, sister: $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, man; $m\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, woman. In other cases, the words $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, male, and $m\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, female, are added in order to denote the gender; thus, $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, and echild, son; $m\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, a daughter: m'po $m\bar{o}w\bar{a}$, a male slave; m'po $m\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, a female slave. $M\bar{o}w\bar{a}$ is probably derived from $m\bar{\imath}$ - $w\bar{a}$, and $m\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$ from $m\bar{\imath}$ - $y\bar{a}$, $m\bar{\imath}$ meaning 'human being' and the real suffixes being $w\bar{a}$ and $y\bar{a}$. Compare ai- $w\bar{a}$, son, and $ai\bar{a}$, daughter, in Mr. Robinson's vocabulary. Compare the male suffix wa in Kachin.

The usual suffixes in the case of animals are $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ (Needham) or $kar\bar{u}$ (Robinson), male, and $t\bar{a}p\bar{\imath}$ (Needham) or tassi (Robinson), female. Thus, $n'gu\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, a male dog; $n'gu\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{a}p\bar{\imath}$, a bitch: ma-chu $kar\bar{u}$, a bull; ma-chu tassi a cow. Other suffixes are $r\bar{\imath}$, male, and $kr\bar{u}$, female; thus, $t\bar{a}my\bar{u}m$ $r\bar{\imath}$ a male monkey; $t\bar{a}my\bar{u}m$ $kr\bar{u}$, a female monkey. In $t\bar{a}\text{-}l\bar{a}$, cock, we have apparently a male suffix $l\bar{a}$, identical with the corresponding suffix in Kachin. 'A hen' is $m'ch\bar{e}$ (Needham) or inteo tassi (Robinson).

Number.—When it is necessary to distinguish the number of a noun, a numeral or some word meaning 'all,' 'many,' etc., is added. Thus, n'guī su-miwe, dog all, dogs.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing word; thus, $m\tilde{a}$ - $j\tilde{\imath}$ $r\tilde{o}$, the buffalo's horn. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as kwa or $k\tilde{o}$, in; do or $d\tilde{o}$, with; $k\bar{o}$ and tappe, from, etc. Thus, $m\tilde{a}$ - $sh\tilde{\imath}$ $k\tilde{o}$ $sh\hat{a}$ - $n\tilde{a}$, water in place, put it in the water; $h\tilde{e}$ $dag\tilde{a}$ $t\tilde{o}$ $n'gu\tilde{\imath}$ $s\tilde{e}gonde$, he dao with dog kill-will, he will kill the dog with his dao; $m\tilde{a}$ - $s\tilde{a}ng$ $h\tilde{a}bang$ $k\tilde{o}$ $ch\tilde{\imath}$ - $n\tilde{a}$, wood jungle from bring, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{i}$ $r\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, water deep; $m\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{i}$ da-rang, buffalo large; $n'gu\bar{i}$ \bar{a} - \bar{a} , a small dog.

There are no suffixes of the comparative. Mr. Robinson mentions that the adjective may get a prolonged or shortened pronunciation in order to denote a high or low degree. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ -long, long, may be pronounced with a lengthening out of the sound. It then means 'very long.' In a similar way katyoa, short, may be pronounced with a short and abrupt sound in order to convey the idea of 'very short.'

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Thus, $n'gu\bar{\imath}$ $k\bar{a}$ -prei, dog four, four dogs.

The numbers 11-19 are formed by adding the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc., to 'ten;' thus, $h\bar{a}l\ddot{u}$, or $h\bar{a}long$, khing, ten one, eleven; $h\bar{a}l\ddot{u}$ $s\bar{a}ng$ or halo ra-chong, thirteen, etc. Ra in ra-chong (Robinson) probably means 'and;' compare $l\bar{a}$ in Daflā and Miri. The numerals 20-90 are formed by prefixing 'two,' 'three,' etc., to $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, ten. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $h\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}ng$, three tens, thirty; $k\bar{a}$ -prei $h\bar{a}l\bar{a}ng$, forty, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns,— $h\tilde{a}$ or $h\tilde{a}$, I; $ny\tilde{a}$, thou; $h\bar{e}$, \bar{e} , or $m't\tilde{a}$, he. The plural is, according to Mr. Robinson, formed by adding long, before which $h\bar{a}$ becomes hing. Thus, hing-long, we; $my\tilde{a}$ -long, you; $m't\tilde{a}$ -long, they. Compare the corresponding suffix lu in Miri and Daflā. Mr. Needham gives ing- $m\bar{e}$, we. The possessive pronouns are the same as the personal ones. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ m'ting $pr\tilde{a}$, my coat (is) good; $ny\tilde{a}$ ang $t\bar{a}g\bar{e}$, your house far? is your house far? Sir George Campbell also gives the form na, thy; thus, na $n\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, thy father; na m'pling, behind thee.

The demonstrative pronouns are \bar{e} - $ch\bar{a}$ or e- $s\bar{a}$ this, and $w\bar{e}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ or hi- $s\bar{a}$, that.

The interrogative pronouns are $sh\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $s\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ (Robinson), who? and $m'j\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $es\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ (Robinson), what?

There are no relative pronouns. We are not, however, informed how relative clauses are expressed. It seems that they are usually formed after the pattern 'I saw a man, he has come,' instead of 'the man whom I saw has come.'

Verbs.—Verbs do not vary for gender, number, or person.

The **Present tense** is formed without any suffix. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $d\bar{\imath}$, I sit; $ny\hat{a}$ $h\bar{a}b\bar{a}$, thou strikest; $h\bar{e}$ shom, he runs. The verb $d\bar{\imath}$, to sit, to be, is sometimes suffixed as a kind of auxiliary verb. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $T\bar{a}r\bar{o}\tilde{d}$ $t\bar{a}k\bar{u}$ $kas\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ -mam. I Mishmi language know, I can speak Mishmi. Compare Kachin dai, Miri and Daflā $d\hat{a}$.

The suffixed mam in the last instance is an affirmative particle and no tense suffix.

The suffix of the **Past tense**: is $y\bar{a}$ (Needham) or a (Robinson). Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ taihing $h\bar{a}n\bar{a}-y\bar{a}$, I to-day came, I came to-day; $h\tilde{a}$ $\bar{a}br\bar{a}ng$ $t\bar{u}-y\bar{a}$, I finger cut-have, I have cut my finger. Compare the corresponding use of yau, to finish, in Khāmtī, and of $y\bar{o}$, yai, joi, and jou, to finish, in many Kuki-Chin dialects. A corresponding suffix yu occurs in Southern Kachin.

The suffix of the **Future** is $n-d\tilde{e}$. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $R\tilde{\imath}m\tilde{a}$ bo- $n-d\tilde{e}$, I Rima go will, I am going to Rima; $h\tilde{a}$ $t\tilde{a}p\tilde{e}$ $dh\tilde{a}-n-d\tilde{e}$, I cooked rice eat-will; $ny\tilde{a}$ $d\tilde{\imath}$ -an- $d\tilde{e}$, thou wilt sit. Compare the suffix na in Southern Kachin.

The suffix of the Imperative is $n\bar{a}$. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{a}$, wood bring; $h\tilde{a}$ m'ting hang- $n\bar{a}$, my coat give, give me my coat.

An imperative of the first person plural is formed by adding $k\ddot{e}$ or $g\ddot{e}$; thus, $p\ddot{o}-k\ddot{e}$ or $p\ddot{o}-g\ddot{e}$, let us go; $dh\tilde{a}-k\ddot{e}$ or $dh\tilde{a}-g\ddot{e}$, let us eat; $y\ddot{\imath}-k\dot{e}$ or $y\ddot{\imath}-ge$, let us stay. Compare Infinitive of purpose, and also the suffix $g\ddot{e}$ of the negative future in Miri.

The suffix of the negative imperative is $g\bar{a}$, to which $\bar{\imath}$ is usually prefixed. Thus $mar\bar{a}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't laugh; $d\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't sit; $d\bar{u}-\bar{\imath}-g\bar{a}$, don't smoke.

The root alone is used as a verbal noun. Mr. Robinson gives the sentence m'tā teku bri no, he rice to-buy wishes, he wants to buy rice. Bri-no may as well, in this instance, be considered as a compound verb. In m'tā ma-chom teo te, he tree to-sell cuts, he cuts down the tree to sell it, the root seems to be used as an infinitive of purpose.

Mr. Robinson mentions a suffix $g\bar{e}$ which is used in order to denote purpose. Thus, mia-a tesa huv-ge tase-ge bonde, girls these to-dance to-sing go-will, these girls will go to sing and to dance. In Mr. Needham's Digāru this sentence would run $m\bar{i}$ - $y\bar{a}$ \bar{a} \bar{e} - $ch\bar{a}$ bui- $g\bar{e}$ ta- $s\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{e}$ bon- $d\bar{e}$, women young these 'let us dance,' 'let us sing' go-will. It will be seen from this instance that the suffix $g\bar{e}$ is a suffix of the future, that tense being used to denote the purpose in Digāru as in other connected languages.

Participles.—No instances are given by Messrs. Robinson and Needham, and I am unable to explain the forms in Sir George Campbell's specimens. $Bh\bar{e}$ in $h\bar{a}$ $t\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{e}$ $dh\bar{a}$ -di- $bh\bar{e}$, I cooked rice eat-if, is perhaps the suffix of an adverbial participle.

Compound verbs seem to be formed by simply putting two verbs together. There are no certain instances of Causatives. They are perhaps formed by suffixing $g\bar{o}$ (Needham) or kwon (Robinson). Thus, $s\bar{i}$, die; $s\bar{e}$ - $g\bar{o}$ or se-kwon, kill. Desideratives seem to be formed by adding no; thus, according to Mr. Robinson, $h\bar{a}$ teku bri-no, I paddy tobuy-wish. Compare Daflā nu. Potentiality is indicated by adding $h\bar{e}n\bar{e}$ (Needham) or hanē (Robinson). Thus, $h\bar{a}$ $j\bar{i}$ - $h\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{i}$ -mam, I to-do-able-am-affirmative-particle, I can do it; $m't\bar{a}$ $b\bar{o}$ -hanē-n- $d\bar{e}$, he to-go-able-be-will, he can go. Note the future in the last instance.

The **Negative particle** is a suffixed im (Needham) or yem, yom (Robinson). Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ $r\bar{e}$ -im, I am not afraid; $d\ddot{u}$ ai-im, many are-not, there are not many; $mt'\bar{a}$ $ny\hat{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$ -no-yem, he thee to-strike-wishes-not, he does not wish to strike you. Mr. Robinson states that lum is added in the negative future and in the potential mood. Thus, $h\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{e}$ -lum, I shall not take it; atya-ha-ne-lum, say-able-not, I cannot speak. Both forms are apparently future tenses, all Mr. Robinson's instances of the potential mood being in the future. There is, therefore, probably a future suffix lu, or lu, which is used before the negative.

The usual tense suffixes are sometimes dropped before the negative. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ taihing $t\bar{a}m$ - $y\bar{u}m$ $k\bar{a}$ -teng-im, I to-day monkey saw-not, I did not see a monkey to-day.

The Interrogative particle is $g\tilde{e}$. Thus, $t\tilde{a}$ \tilde{a} - $g\tilde{e}$, fish are? are there any fish? $ny\tilde{a}$ $r\tilde{e}$ - $d\tilde{i}$ - $g\tilde{e}$, thou afraid-art? art thou afraid? $ny\tilde{a}$ $p\tilde{a}mr\tilde{o}$ \tilde{i} - $d\tilde{i}$ - $g\tilde{e}$, thy brother is? hast thou a brother? $ny\tilde{a}$ ka- $s\tilde{a}$ - $d\tilde{i}$ - $g\tilde{e}$, do you understand? The particle of disjunctive questions seems to be $ky\tilde{a}$; thus, \tilde{a} $ky\tilde{a}$ ai-im $ky\tilde{a}$, are there (any) or are there not? The interrogative particle seems to be dropped when the sentence contains an interrogative pronoun. Thus, $h\tilde{a}$ - $n\tilde{o}$ \tilde{a} , where is (it)?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

MIJU.

The remarks on Mijū grammar which follow are based on the grammatical sketch given by Mr. Robinson and on Mr. Needham's vocabulary. The spelling of the latter has been followed so far as possible.

1

Prefixes.—The most common otiose prefixes are ka, m, and ra.

Ka or $k\bar{a}$ occurs in nouns such as ka-mai, woman; $k\bar{a}$ - $ph\bar{a}n$, flower, etc. It is often dropped in compounds. Thus, sa-mai, sister; mai- $s\bar{a}$, young woman. Another prefix, $k\bar{\imath}$, occurs before nouns of relationship; thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ -pai, father; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $na\tilde{\imath}$, mother; $k\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ ng, grandfather, etc. This $k\bar{\imath}$ is perhaps originally the possessive pronoun of the first person. The prefix ka is commonly used in the formation of adjectives. Thus, ka-nai, near; ka-tai, large; ka- $t\bar{a}$, new; ka-tang, deep; ka- $s\bar{\imath}t$, good, etc. Compare the corresponding prefix ka or ga in Kachin, Bodo, and Nāgā languages.

M is used before nouns. Thus, $m'ch\bar{u}$, mouth; m'blai, tongue; m'san, claw; $m'g\bar{u}$, coat; $m'bl\bar{\iota}$, house; $m-ph\bar{\iota}$, lightning. Compare Kachin ma.

Ra is prefixed to nouns such as ra-nga, fish; ra-mai, tail; ra-ming, sun; ra-mang, name. Compare the r-suffix in forms such as Rāngkhōl ir-ming, Hallām $r\bar{a}$ -ming, name. Mr. Robinson gives nga, fish; le-mik, sun; and $l\bar{a}$ -mong, name. It is possible that different prefixes are represented in the words quoted.

A prefix ta seems to occur in words such as $ta-l\bar{\imath}$, bow; $ta-l\bar{\imath}-\bar{\imath}$, buffalo; ta-mang, fire-place; ta-ming, salt, etc.

In $n'd\acute{a}r$, petticoat; $n\ddot{a}$ - $ch\ddot{a}$, star; n'dak, belly; n'kha-yeng, village, etc., we have a prefix na corresponding to Digāru and Kachin n'.

Nouns.—The Gender of human beings is distinguished by using different words, or by adding rōwai, male, and ka-mai, or mai, female. Thus, kī-pai, father; kī-naū (Needham) or mum (Robinson), mother: kī-kūng, grandfather; kī-ngõ, grandmother: shāmyē, brother; sā-mai, sister: mangrā rōwai, a male slave; mangrā ka-mai, a female slave.

The usual suffixes in the case of animals are $n'd\bar{u}$, $rang\bar{a}$, $rah\bar{a}r$, rapai, and $ng\bar{a}l\tilde{o}$, male, and $na\tilde{u}$, female. Thus, $l\bar{\iota}$ $n'd\bar{u}$, pig male; $l\bar{\iota}$ $na\tilde{u}$, pig female: $m\bar{o}$ $rang\bar{a}$, a male monkey; $m\bar{o}$ $na\tilde{u}$, a female monkey: $kw\bar{\iota}$ $rah\bar{a}r$, a dog; $kw\bar{\iota}$ $na\tilde{u}$, a bitch: krai rapai, a cock; krai $na\tilde{u}$, a hen: $sh\bar{a}$ $ng\bar{a}l\tilde{o}$, a he-mithon; $sh\bar{a}$ $na\hat{u}$, a she-mithon. Mr. Robinson gives $l\bar{\iota}$ $ng\bar{a}l\tilde{o}$, a hog; $l\bar{\iota}$ ka-mai, a sow.

Number.—Number is, when necessary, indicated by adding a numeral or else some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc. Thus, kwī grün, dog eight, eight dogs; klan ka-plak, flower all, all the flowers.

Case.—The nominative and the accusative do not take any suffix. The genitive is expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, $w\bar{a}$ $l\bar{a}p$, bamboo leaf, the leaf of the bamboo; $s\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{u}$ $r\bar{o}$, child hand, the child's hand. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. I have not been able to trace other postpositions than li and $l\bar{a}$, in, into.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify. Thus, man-chū keiyem, cow black, a black cow; kang ga-khrang, a long horn.

The comparative degree is expressed by simply putting the compared noun before the adjective. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ an ka-chong ka-shyung, I this man lean, I am leaner than this man; $w\bar{e}$ ny \hat{a} umong kam, he thee more has, he has more than thou.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. The numerals 11-19 are formed by inserting $m\bar{a}$, and, between kap, ten, and the numerals 'one,' 'two,' etc. A suffix $k\hat{a}$, corresponding to $k\hat{a}$, in Miri and $g\hat{a}$ in Daflā is added in Mr. Needham's list. Thus, $kap \ m\bar{a} \ ko - m\bar{o} - k\hat{a}$, eleven; $kap \ m\bar{a} \ n\bar{a}t - k\hat{a}$,

nineteen. 'Twenty' is ka-tal- $m\hat{a}$ (Needham), or ke-tag (Robinson). Sung-gyep, thirty (Robinson), is formed by prefixing sung, i.e., the numeral $k\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}m$, three, without the prefix $k\bar{a}$, to gyep, another word for 'ten.' Bri-si, forty, in the same way contains bri, the base of kam-brin, four, prefixed to si, ten. $Ngr\ddot{u}n$ -si, fifty, seems to contain another word for 'five,' $ngr\ddot{u}n$.

Pronouns.—The personal pronouns are $k\bar{\imath}$, I; $k\bar{\imath}$ -thal, we; $ny\hat{a}$ or $n\hat{a}$, thou; $n\hat{a}$ -thal or $n\hat{a}$ -ne-thal, you; $w\bar{e}$, he, she; $w\bar{e}$ -thal or $v\bar{e}$ -thal, they. Mr. Needham, who does not mention any plural forms, gives $\bar{a}ngkai$, he.

Demonstrative pronouns are $\bar{a}n$, this; $w\tilde{a}$ (Needham), $ph\bar{e}$ -hai (Robinson), that.

The interrogative pronouns are $ny\bar{a}$ (Needham) or $(hoi\text{-})n\bar{a}$ (Robinson), who? shin (Needham) or sin-doi (Robinson), what? Thus, $\bar{a}n$ tang-klau $n\bar{a}$ $p\bar{i}\text{-}kong$, this spear who given-has? who has given you this spear?

Relative clauses are formed in the same way as in Digāru. We have no information as to how relative participles are formed.

Verbs.—Verbs do not differ for gender, number and person.

The root alone is used in order to denote the **Present time**; thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ ndat, I call; $ny\hat{a}$ $k\bar{a}p$, thou shootest; $w\bar{e}$ $g\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{a}r$, he runs. The suffix meng, probably a verb substantive, is sometimes added. Thus, $w\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}p$ -meng, he shoots, or, is shooting.

The usual suffixes of **Past time** are $g\bar{a}$ and kong; compare Miri $k\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}ng$. Kong is often used to denote a remote past, and may be translated as a perfect. Thus, mang- \bar{a} - $n\bar{i}$ $t\bar{e}$ -chim kc- $m\bar{o}$ $s\bar{a}t$ - $g\bar{a}$, yesterday wild-hog one killed, yesterday I killed a wild hog; Hēram $w\bar{i}t$ -kong, Heram sold (it); $y\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ thai-kong, where have-(they-) gone?

The suffix of the Future is $y\bar{u}$ or yung; thus, $k\bar{\imath}sh\bar{a}$ - $y\bar{u}$, I will eat; $w\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}p$ -yung, he will shoot.

The suffix of the Imperative is $sh\bar{u}$. Thus, $ton\text{-}zai\text{-}sh\bar{u}$, sing; Chohun miro salsh \bar{u} , Chohun with (-you) bring; $t\bar{\imath}$ -kong $t\bar{\imath}$ thong-sh \bar{u} , water-ghaut water fetch, fetch some water from the water ghaut. The root alone is often used; thus, $h\bar{u}$, come.

The negative imperative is expressed by prefixing ai to the verb. Thus, ai- $sh\bar{a}$, don't eat; ai- $nu\bar{\imath}$, don't sleep; ai- $tha\bar{\imath}$, don't go.

The root alone is used as a verbal noun. Thus, $k\bar{\imath}$ mai $m\bar{a}$ non-niu, I dance not can. The same form is apparently also used as an infinitive of purpose. Thus, $v\bar{e}$ -thal ta-ming wit $sh\bar{u}p$ -kong, they salt sell bought, they have bought the salt in order to sell it; $\bar{a}n$ thong $h\bar{u}$, this see come, come and see this; $k\bar{o}m$ sat thai-kong, bear kill went, they have gone in order to kill a bear.

There are no materials available for showing the formation of participles.

Compound verbs.—We are only informed about the formation of the compounds denoting potentiality, in which non-niu, able, is added to the root of the principal verb. Thus, nyá zai-non-niu, thou sing-canst.

The Negative particle is a prefixed $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $kw\bar{i}$ $m\bar{a}$ -chak-yung, the-dog not-bite-will; n'khar li k -change $m\bar{a}$ -chak, village in men not-are, there are no men in the village. The vowel of the negative is sometimes shortened or changed in other ways. Thus, Needham mo-phān. Robinson m'-phan, bad.

The Interrogative particle is $\tilde{\imath}$; compare Kachin $\tilde{\imath}$. Thus, $w\tilde{a}$ zai-meng, tyat-ma- $\tilde{\imath}$, the-birds are-inging, hear-not? the birds are singing, do you not hear? m'bl $\tilde{\imath}$ lā

hā-ī, house into come? will you come into the house? The interrogative particle is dropped after an interrogative pronoun. Thus, ān nyā bāng, this whose cloth? whose cloth is this? kī gangnyā lā-kong, my bow who taken-has? who has taken my bow?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

LIST OF STANDARD WORDS AND PHRASES

Engl	ish.			Aka (Darrang).		Eastern Dafli	ā (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
1. One .	•	•	•	A	•	Akkin .		Ā-kin	Ā-kâ, ā-tēr-kâ
2. Two	•	•	•	Kshi	•	Anyi .		Ā-ni	Ānyī-kâ
3. Three	•	•	•	Zu		A-om .	v •	Ā-ām	Āūm-kâ
4. Four	•	•	•	Fi-ri	•	A-pl .		Ā-pli	Ápi-kâ
5. Five	•	•	•	Phum	•	Â-ng .		Ā-ngō	Āngâ-kâ
6. Six	•	*	•	Rieh	•	Ã-kr		Ak-ple	Ākeng-kâ
7. Seven			•	Mulh	•	Kanni .		Kānag	Kinit-kå
8. Eight			•	Sikzi	•	Plīn .		Plag-nag	Pinyī-kâ
9. Nine		•	•	Sther, sthö	•	Kyā .		Kāyō	Kânāng-kā
10. Ten .	•	•	•	Rhi	•	Illyi .		Rāng	Ē-ing-kâ
11. Twenty	•	•	•	Bisha	•	Nyi-krü .		Rāng-chāng	É-ing-ānyī-kâ
12. Fift y	•	•	•	Phumu-ru	•	Chāmūng	• • •	•••••	E-ing-āngā-kā
13. Hundred		•	•	Phogwa, purrua	,	Lüg .	• • •		Ling-kâ
14. I .	•	•	•	Ngna, nyâ, nâ	•	Ngâ .		Ngō	Ngâ
15. Of me	•	•	•	Nga geh	•	Ngâ-ka, ngâ		Ngō-g	Ngâ-ka
16. Mine	•	•	•	Nga-chhi	•	Ngâ-ka .			Ngâ-ka
17. We .	•		•	Ni		Ngâ-lu .			Ngâ-lū
18. Of us	•	•	•	Inchhi gao		Ngâ-lu-ga			Ngâ-lū-ka
19. Our	•	•	•	Inchhi		Ngâ-lu-ga			Ngâ-lū-ka
20. Thou		•	•	Ва	•	Nâ .			Nâ
21. Of thee	•	•	•	Do-goio	•	Nâ-ka, nâ			Nâ-ka
22. Thine	•		•	Ba-chhi	•	Nâ•ka .			Nâ-ka
23. You	•		•	Jah, jö, jöe	•	Nâ-lu .		N. 1	Nâ-lū
24. Of you	•	•	•	Jah-goio		Nâ-lu-ga.	• •	NT- 1	Nâ-lū-ka
25. Your	•		•	Jaichhi		Nâ-lu-ga.	• •		Nâ-lū-ka
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IN THE DIALECTS OF THE NORTH ASSAM GROUP.

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Tr (Camp	aying Mishmi	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Ēkhē .		E-khing	. Kmō, kŏmō	1. One.
	Kāni .		Kā-ying	Kā-ning, kinnin	2. Two.
	Kāsh .		Kā-sâng	Kā-sām	3. Three.
*****	Kāppi .		Kā-prei	Kambrin	4. Four.
Pilngå	Māngā .	• • •	Mā-ngā	Ka-liin	5. Five.
•••••	Ahe .		Tārā	Kā-tām	6. Six.
	Joh .		Õwē	Nün	7. Seven.
	Ilū .	• • •	Illam	Grün	8. Eight.
	Khili .		Kenyōng	Nāt	9. Nine.
	Hush .		Hālāng	Кар	10. Ten.
	Ani hush		Kāying-hālāng or hālāng- hālāng.	Ketag	11. Twenty.
	Māngā lon		Māngā hālāng .	Ngrünsi	12. Fifty.
·	Malū .	• • •	Mālam	Wāyē	13. Hundred.
	Ngialumbro		Hā, hã	Kī	14. I.
	Nge-ehunde		Hā, hã		15. Of me.
	Nge-ehunde				16. Mine.
	Ehundn a	• •	Hing-lâng, ing-mē .	Kī-thal	17. We.
	Ngaji-appo		Hing-lâng, ing-mē .		18. Of us.
·····	Ngialadu (?)				19. Our.
	Ngio .		Nyâ	Nâ, nyâ	20. Thou.
·······	Newji .		Nyâ		21. Of thee.
	Newji .				22. Thine.
·	Ehund .		Nyâ-lâng	No-thal on wone-thal .	23. You.
	Newji .		Nyâ-lâng		24. Of you.
	Newji .				25. Your.

Bo	glish.			Aka (Darrar	·8)•	Easter	n Daflā (Hamilton).	Daf	lā (Bobinson).		Miri.		
26. He .	•	•	•	I	•	. Ma	• •	•	. Mā		. Bui	,	•	•
27. Of him	•	•	•	Ietchhi-goio .	• .	Mui-ga		•	Mā-g	• • •	. Bui-ka .	•	•	•
28. His .	~	•	•	Ietchhi, ö-thi .		Mui-ga		•	Mā-g	• •	. Bui-ka .	•	•	•
29. They	•	•		Nga, na		Bāllu		• ,	Mā-lu	• • •	. Bū-lū .	•	5	•
80. Of them		•		Nga-goio	•	Būll-ga,	bāllā .	•	Mā-lug		. Bā-lā-ka	•		•
31. Their	•	•	•	Rasa	•	Büll-ga,	bāllā .	• ,	Mā-lug		Bū-lū-ka	•	•	
32. Hand	٠,	•	•	Pho, gsi		Ā-lā			Lāk		. Ā-lāk .	•	'•	
33. Foot	<u>C</u>	•	•	Shi		Āl.		•	Lāgā	• • •	. Ā-lē .	•	•	
34. Nose	•	r_{ullet}	•	Nishi, nüs ü .		Nyepum	•	• .	Nyopom	• • •	. Yē-būng	•	, •	
35. Еу е	•	•	•	Ni		A-nyi			Nyāk	• • •	. Ā-mik .	•	•	·
36. Mouth	•	•	•	Nza, nsu .		A-gam			Gām	• •	. Nāp-pāng	•	PV (*	
37. Tooth	•	•	•	Thu		E-hi			Fig	• • •	. I-pang .	÷	ŗ.	
38. Ear	•	•	•	Phu		Mom			Niorong .	•	Yē-rūng	•	•	
39. Hair	5	۰,•	•	Ke-ti, ke-chū .		Dŭm		• •	Dümük .	•	. Dām-wit	•	ŗ.	
40. Head	•	•	•	Khe		Eppin		• •	Dompo .	• •	. Mit-tūk	•	•	
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Jebla		Ailyi	• •	• •	Rø .		. Ai-yō .	F7 •	? *	•
4 2. Belly	•	-	•	Lakhudi		Ai-yē			Коро .		. A-kī	>4 •	ŗ.	
43. Back	•	[•	,	Sbo		Lânk	• •	• •	Gárpō .	• •	. Lām-kū	•	K1	•
44. Iron	•	[•	•	Sza		Yodar			Rokdor 🐍		Yok-din .	•	r.	
45. Gold	•	(¢	Kshi, shü .		Ēin			Āen .		. (No word)	•	•	•
46. Silver	•	[•	•	Lummu, lümma		Rũp		• •	Tängkt .	• •	. Ditto	[*	[•	•
47. Father	<u>.</u> •	ŕ	•	Āu		Ãp			$ar{ ext{A-bo}}$.	• •	. Ābū, bā-bū		•	•
48. Mother	.~•	•	•	Ain, ā-ni.		Āmmā, o	rā-na	• .	Ā-ne	,	Ānū, nā-nū	•	•	•
49. Brother	•	•	•	$ ilde{ ext{A-lu}}$ ($elder$); nue	(younger)	A-bū (eld	(er); bor	(younger)	Tette (elde	r); boro (younge	Buirâ .	7.	8> }●	•
50. Sister	•	•	•	Ā-ma (elder); ni (younger).	in, nü-mi	Ammi (younge	(elder); er).	buir-ma	Ā-mā (e (yeunger	elder); biir-m	Buirma	•	`•	•
51. Man	•	•	۲.	Nu-nā, n ū-nā .		Nyī	3 7	•	Bāngni .	j.	Ā-mī, mī-lvor	ıg	•	•
52. Woman	•	•	•`	E-phun, pfü-mi		Nyemm			Nyemā .	۲.	Nerng, mi-ma		•	
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Abor (when different from Miri)	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Ngio-âpu	Mtā, hē, ē	Wê, ângkai	26. He.
···	Mimut or mit		•••••	27. Of him.
	Mimut or mit		······	28. His.
	He-aibu	Mtā-lâng, wē-lâng	Wê-thal or vê-thal	29. The y .
	New-ipo-māya		••••	30. Of them.
	New-ipo-māya			31. Their.
	Akhmo	Htyoa, hāthō	Yop, ro	32. Hand.
·····	Byāpā	Mgrung, ngrõ paiā	Mplā, plā-topā	33. Foot.
	Enabo	Hnyā-gom, hā-nāgam .	Min-yong, mīno	34. Nose.
	Elābyā	Ma-lom	Mã	35. Eye.
	Ekabe	Ku-kwen, ta-rambom .	Njyut, mchū	36. Mouth.
	Tāmbyā	Lã	Tsī, sīpā	37. Tooth.
	Akunā	Nkrū-nā, krū-nā	Ing	38. Ear.
	Thāmbyā	Thang	Sham	39. Hair.
Ā-tāk	Eku, ekura	Mkau, kūrū	Kā	40. Head.
	Lina	Ta-langnā	Mblai	41. Tongue.
	Khiapu	Klītā-pom	Ndak	42. Belly.
	Erambo	Mpling	Glok	43. Back.
••••	Si	Tsi, sai	Teng-gri, lungli	44. Iron.
	Pidi	Paddei .	Som	45. Gold.
	Pau	Pau-eng	Rupāi	46. Silver.
Yait	Nābā . ,	Nā-bā	Kī-pai	47. Father.
Mānī	Nāni	Nā-mā .	Nu-nu, kîn a ũ	48. Mother.
Bābuing	Āliā	Nā-fo, nā-pū (elder); pāmyō, pāmrō (younger).	Tchepmai (elder); gotwoi	49. Brother.
Mimi	Athepoā	Nā-bi (elder); mā-thī (younger).	shāmyē (younger).	50. Sister.
	Ме уа , ,	-	Ktehong, chong ; male, rowai	51. Man.
••• •••	Ауа	Mīyā	Kmai, kamai	52. Woman.

Engli	eh.			Aka (Dar	rang).		Easte	rn Daflå	(Hamilt	o n).	Da	flā (Robinso	n).		Miri.	
53. Wife			•	Ņā-phun, gsi	•	•	. Nyîhy ü	•		•	Mige, nio	fāng .		Miyeng .	• •	
54. Child				Āngā-sā .	•		. Kâ	•			Āngā		•	Kē .		
55. Son .		•		Sau .	•		. Kâ nye	gā		•	Kão		•	Kō mi-lyo au mi-ly	ng (child m	rale]
56. Daughter		•		Sâm .			. Kâ nye	m m		•	Niome-ki		• ,		(child form	iale]
57. Slave		•	•	Shapse-keri	•		. Nyerrā			-		*** ***			nale, Pāng-	-ne=
58. Cultivator	?	•		Viddeu .			. Pa-binr	ıa.				••••			=field-do er	
59. Shepherd		•		Kishi-rakkhru				****	•			•••••			•••••	
60. God	•	•		Gaisa guru			. Ūī	•			Ōyuk		• ,		•••••	
61. Devil		•		Nsa .				*** **	•						*****	
62. Sun	•		•	Jū	•	•	. Dâ-nyi	•			Dani	• • .		Dâ-nyi .	٠.	
63. M oon		•		<u>Kh</u> abbi .	•	•	. Pol	•	•	•	Pōlō ,			Pōlō .		
64. Star				Litse.	•	•	. Tākkār	•			Tākar			Tākār .	•	
65. Fire				Me, mi	•		. Üm	•	, ,		Ame			Ümü .		
66. Water				<u>Kl</u> u .		•	. Isshi	•	• .		Esi	• , •		Ásī .		
67. House				Ngya, nie	•		. Nām					*** ***		Ēkūm .	. •	
68. Horse		•		Phu-grā .		•	. Ghura	• .			Gērā				*** ***	
59. Cow		• .	•	Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u	• ,	•	. Sa .	•			Sü	• • .			*** ***	
70. Dog		•	•	Sleh, sülö			. Í-ki	•			Ekki			Ēkī .	•	
71. Cat			•	Āsāh, āshā	•		. Ā-sī	b :	• •		$ ilde{ extbf{A}} ext{-che}$	• •			•	
72. Cock				Pemrau .			. Porâ r âj)		•		*** ***	. •	Rokpō .		
73. Duck		•	ş	Osa .	•		. Pajāb	•		•		*** ***		Pējāp	•	
74. Ass		•		Phu-babu			•	*** *				401 400		-2h	•	
75. Camel			-		••			***				*** ***			*****	
76. Bird		•		Musu .			. Pattā	•	• •		Pāttā.	•		Prettäng	*** ***	
77. Go		•)	•	Ji-bueh, kha-br	ıe		. Ūnni	•		•	$ ilde{A}$ ngne	•		Gī-tokā .	• •	•
78; Eat	•	•	•	Cha-bueh		•	. Da-tâ	•			Do-tō			Dâ-tokā .	-	
79. Sis	·	•		D. I.	•	•	Dâ-tâ			•	Dong-tō .				• •	,
N. A. G.—	ene		-	,	-	· 	24-04	•	• •		nong-w	•	•	Dū-tokā .	• •	

Abor (when different from Miri)). Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mijū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Āku	Hamya, miyâ .	. Ke-kmai	53. Wife.
******	Āwu	Āgemung, ā	. Sā-bū	54. Child.
······	Åbro	Aiwā, mōwā ā	. Sā	55. Son.
	Āmyau	Aiā, mīyā ā	Kmai-sā, sā-mai	56. Daughter.
•••	Ерро	Мро	Manggrā	57. Slave.
····	Āri			58. Cultivator.
	Maji-halu	······	 .	59. Shepherd.
	Ini-hunā	Nging-ya (?)	Se-lap	60. God,
	Daen , , .	*** ***		61. Devil.
	Ini	Ring-nging, ring	Lemik, raming	62. Sun.
•••••	Elā	Lho, hala	Lai	63. Moon.
	Ādikro	Kā-ding	Maji, nāchī	64. Star.
	Āmihū,	Nā-ming	Mai	65. Fire.
	Māji	Má-chi	Ti	66. Water.
	Uka	Ang	Blī, mblī	67. House.
	Geera (sic)	Grue	Kom-beng	38. Horse.
	Mājūkro	Mā-chu, mātrau	Man-chu	59. Cow.
1	Ikū	Nkwī, nokwī, nguī	Kwi	70. Dog.
	Majāri	Mājārī	Jāmi	'1. Cat.
F	Eto	Inteo karü, tālā ; hen, inteo tassi, mchē.	Krai rapai; hen, krai nau,	2. Cock.
I	Dekibu	Tkhrēng-bu, klenbō .	krai kmai. Kai-pet; tãhã	3. Duck.
	•••	•••		4. Ass.
	*** ***	•••••		5. Camel.
P	Pyā	Mpiā	Wā	6. Bird.
n-to-kā B	Bānā	Bō-nā	Phai-shū, thai-shū 7	7. Go.
E	Hā	Chã-nā	Shā-shū	'8. Eat.
, Ji	fibā I	Dî-nā	Lap-shū	9. Sit.

English.		Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daflā (Robinson).	Miri.
80. Come .	: •	Age dueh	Ú-tâ · · ·	Ang-ku-bō	Gī-ā-tokā
81. Beat .		Gigueh, güga	Ma-tâ.	Mo-to	Pā-tokâ
82. Stand .		Gajueh, gü-dzü-lue	Dā-tâ	Dok-tō	Dāk-tokā
83. Die .		Se-weh, bü-dzi-bi	Sī-tâ	Sig-to	Sī-tokā
84. Give .		Ve-tchu, dzi-ba	Ji-tâ, k ē	Bik-tō, ke	Bī-tokā
85. Run .		Je-bueh, godzoe	Yâ-tâ . ,	Får-tō	Dūk-toka
86. Up		Edju-ge	Tā-lâ		Таі-б
87. Near .		E-ni-cha	Ā-gūm-hâ	Berā	Ånin
:88. Down .		Ullur-ge	Bā-là		Kieg
89. Far .		Erra-ge	Ádâ	Ādōpā	Motē
90. Before .		E-bra-ge, e-vra	Kolga		Kērāp ü
91. Behind .		E-phun-ge	Kâ-kuā	• •••••	Mēlāmp ü
92. W ho .		Juah	Hī	He	Sêko
93. What .		Han, hania	Hog	Hogo	Inkwö
94. Why .		Han-to, han-do	Hog-ba		Kāpīlā
95. And .		Âiya	Lā		Lang
96. But .		Khenadane	Okka	·	No word, participles used
97. If		Senamerede, soio	Nyilå (a verbal suffix)		Muilō
98. Yes .		Engah, ö	A	·	A (pronounced like 'er')
99. No	•	. Ма	Mā		Mā
100. Alas .	•	Ngah ngah	Aa		
101. A father .	•	. Au	Āb-gâ		Ābū
102. Of a father	•	. Áu-ti	Åb-ga		Ābū-ka
103. To a father	•	. Áu-e	Âb-am	•	Ābū-em
104. From a father	•	. Au-goio	. Abga hok	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ābū-lok-ke or lok-ka
105. Two fathers	•	. Áu kshi	Āb anyi-gâ		Âbū ānyī-kâ
106. Fathers .	٠.	Ja āu, áu anye.	. Åb tülläng	. Ā-bō pāng, ā-bō ā-rok	Ābū kiding

Abor (when different from Miriv	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
	Ebalibi	Hānnā-nā	Hū-shū	80. Come.
	Нйр	Hābā-nā	Pōng-shū	81. Beat.
	De vā	Dwe-nā	Long-shū	S2. Stand.
	Hibā	Sī-nā	Sī-shū	83. Die.
	Hābā	Hang-nā	Pī-shū	84. Give.
•••••	Dobo	Chu-nā, shom-nā	Gīār-shū	85. Run.
	Etūdā		Āliroh, kanai	86. Up.
·····	Ānomā	Ngā	····	87. Near.
Rümkin	Ripomā		••••	88. Down.
	Mralo	Dyāu, dā	Klām	89. Far.
	Āhyā	·····	·····	90. Before.
	Epindolu	 ,		91. Behind.
	Ā-āyā	Shā	Nyā	92. Who.
	Esiā	Shāgehā, mjā	Sindoi, shin.	93. What.
······	Ejap	Mjā kanong, kadī	Chendo, siga	94. Why.
	Âmā-mā			95. And.
	Āmā-mā		·····	96. But.
	Ejamigo			97. If.
	Āya	Am	Layim, am	98. Yes.
	Ngybo (sic)	particle, im; prohibitive	Mkā; prohibitive particle, ai prefixed.	99. No.
	Akhakh	particle, i-gā, both suffixed		100. Alas.
Substitute yaii	Ēkhē nābā	Nā-bā	Kī-pai	101. A father.
	Ēkhē nābā juibo	No postposition for genitive	No postposition for genitive	102. Of a father.
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	Ēkhē nābā ji	··· ···		103. To a father.
7 P 144 045	Ēkhē nābā kepanji	Tappe and ko=from.		04. From a father.
	Kāni nābā		1	05. Two fathers.
	Nābā ej ā		1	06. Fathers.

English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daflā (Robinson).	M:ri.
107. Of fathers	Jaāu-ti	Āb būll-ga		Ābū kiding-ka
108. To fathers	Jaāu ni	Åb būll-ba		Ābū kiding-em
109. From fathers	Āu na-goio	Āb bāll-ga hok .		Ābū kiding-lok-ke
110. A daughter	E-sām	Nyemm kâ		Kō nerug
111. Of a daughter	Sām-ti	Nyemm kâ-ga		Ko nerug-ka
112. To a daughter	Sām-e	Kâ nyemm-am	,	Ko nerug-em
113. From a daughter .	Sām goio	Kà nyemm-ga hok		Kō nerug-lok-ke
114. Two daughters	Sâm kshi	Kâ nyemm a-nyi-gâ.		Ko nerug ānyī-kâ
115. Daughters	Sām aniya	Kâ nyemm müllûng.		Ko nerug kiding
116. Of daughters	Sām-ti	Kâ nyemm mūllu-ga .		Kō nerug kiding-ka
117. To daughters	Sām ni	Kâ nyemm mūllu-ba .		Ko nerug kiding-em .
118. From daughters .	Sām na-goio	Kâ nyemm müllu-ga hok .		Ko nerug kiding-lok-ke .
119. A good man	Nü-nā u.	Nyī āl-na		Milvong aina-kâ
120. Of a good man	Nü-na u-ti	Nyī āl-na-ga		Milvong aina-kâ-k; more correct to say aina milvong-
121. To a good man	Nü-nā u-se	Nyī āl-na-ba		ka. Milvong aina-kâ-em; more correct to say aina mil-
122. From a good man .	Nü-nā u-goio	Nyi āl-na-ga hok		vong-ein. Milvong aina-kâ-lok-ke; more correct to say aina
123. Two good men	Nü-nā u kshi	Nyī āl-na a-nyi-gâ .		milvong-lok-ke. Aina milvong änyi-kâ
124. Good men	U nü-nā	Nyi āl-na mūllū-he		Aina milvong kiding .
125. Of good men	Nü-nā u na-chi	Nyī āl-na műllű-he-ga	••• •••	Aina milvong kiding-ka .
126. To good men	Na-re u nü-nā	Nyi āl-na mūllū-ham	481 %	Aina milvong kiding-em .
127. From good men .	Nü-nā u na-goio	Nyī āl-na mūllū-he-ga hok .	•••••	Aina milvong kiding-lok-ke
128. A good woman	E-mi-miu	Nyemm āl-na	******	Aina nerug
129. A bad boy	Ere āngāsā mikzū	Kâ āl-mā-na	******	Ai-mā-na kō
130. Good woman	Mimi jija a	Nyemm āl-na mūllū-he .	02****	Aina nerug kiding
131. A bad girl	Ere mimi mikzü	Nyemm kâ āl-mā-na.	100 700	Ai-mā-na kō nerng .
132. Good	σ	Āl-dû	Ā-le-pā	Ai-dâ (lit. good is) .
133. Better	Ere e-u-phau	Āl-yā-dâ	Ā-le-yā	Ai-y-ādā (lit. good more is)

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chullkātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Dig āru M ishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Englis h.
	Nābā juibo			107. Of fathers.
	Nābā ji			108. To fathers.
	Nābā gā juibo		·····	109. From fathers.
	Kepāte āmyau or aya .	Aiā	Sā-mai	110. A daughter.
	Aya pāte ah			111. Of a daughter.
	Aya ji			112. To a daughter.
	Pāte la aya			113. From a daughter.
	Kāni aya			114. Two daughters.
	Aya dolumbro			115. Daughters.
	Aya jipo			11c. Of daughters.
	Aya lumbro			117. To daughters.
	Ah lumbro (sic)			118. From daughters.
	Khenge premu po	Mowā prā	Adjectives follow their substantives.	119. A good man.
	Khenge premu ji			120. Of a good man.
·	Khenge premu jiā			121. To a good man.
	Khenge premu polumbro .			122. From a good man.
	Kāni prāya premu			123. Two good men.
	Pra lumbro			124. Good men.
	Prā imo dolumbro	······	****	125. Of good men.
	Prā imo dolumbro ji			126. To good men.
•••••	Prā imo pradoibu imo dolumbroji.		545522	127. From good men.
	Khenge prādu aya	Mīyā prā	*88.4*	128. A good woman,
••••	Kepāte (or khenge) nāpā khi ah (sic).	Prā-im=bad (good-not) .	Mo-phān=bad (? not-good)	129. A bad boy.
	Prādu aya			130. Good woman.
••••••	Khenge mipathy āku (sic) .	Mīyā ā prā-im		131. A b a d girl.
	Prādu, praijah, or athoprā.	Prā	Kasī t .	132. Good.
<i>,,,,,</i>	Lapraino pradaibo			133. Better.

English.			Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daflā (Robinson).	Miri.
134. Best .	•	•	Ere u-m-du	Müllüj ä -hām āl -y ā-dâ .	Pāng ā-le-yā	Āpui lokkem ai-dâ (lit. all from good is).
135. High .		•	U-pseu, e-pshü	Au-dâ	Āo-pā	Ōid
136. Higher .			E-de e-psh ü-phâ	Au-yā-dâ	Āо-уā	Ōi-yā
137. Highest .	•	•	De-du-na e-pshü-phâ	Müllüjä-hām au-yā-dâ .	Pāng ão-yà	Āpui lokkem ōi
138. A horse .	•	•	Phu-grā abā	Ghura	·····	
139. A mare .	•	•	Phu-grā emi-ni abā	Ghuri	······	
140. Horses .		•	Phu-grā aniya		·····	·····
141. Mares .	•		Phu-grā emi-ni aniya .			
142. A ball .		•	Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u urbā abā .	Sa ha-b	Sü-bō	
143. A cow .			Phu-lukhu jachu abā .	Sa ha-n	Sü-ne	
144. Bulls .		•	Phu-lu <u>kh</u> u urbā aniya .	Sa ha-b edē		
145. Cows .		•	Phu-lu-khu jachiu aniya .	Sa ha-n edē		······
146. A dog .	•		Sü-lö um-bâ abā	Īkī kīb	Ki-bō	Eki
147. A bitch .		•	Sü-lö ami-ni abā	Īkī kin	Ki-ne	Ekī kina
148. Dogs .	•	•	Sü-lö ne-phe	Īkī kī-b atchamma		Ēkī kiding
149. Bitches .	•	•	Sü-lö am-ni ne-phe	Īkī kīn atchamma		Ekī kīna kiding
150. A he goat	٠	•	Khesi um-bâ abā	Sibin bim-pa	Bob-lā	Shâ-ben ben-bâ
151. A female goat	•	•	Khesi ami-ni abā	Sībin bī n -na	Be-ne	Shâ-ben ben-na
152. Goats .	•	•	Khes-na	Sībin edē		Shâ-ben ki-ding
153. A male deer	•	•	Phu um-bâ	Shudum dum-ba	Chor-bo	No general word. Shishūk-Sambar; shūk-bâ=male ditto; dūmshūng=Hog deer; shū-bâ=male ditto,
154. A female deer		•	Phu ami-ni • .	Shudum dum-na	Chor-ne	etc., etc. Ditto; female Sambar shi- shūk shūk-na—Hog deer=
155. Deer .			Phu	Shudum atchamma		dūmshūng shū-na, etc., etc. Simon (also means any animal).
156. I am .		•	Nah du-chha	Ngâ dâ-dna		Ngâ dũng (or dāk, or dâ
157. Thou art .	,	•	Ba du-cho-mā	Nâ dâ-dna		Nâ dũng
158. He is .	•	•	E du-chho	Ma dâ-dna		Bui dūng
159. We are .	•	•	Ni du-chho	Ngâ-lu dâ-dna		Ngâ-lũ dũng
160. You are .	•	•	Jah du-cha-mā	Nâ-lu dâ-dna		Nâ-lū dāng

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mīj ū M ishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
*** ***	Tapum praibo		÷ 3	134. Best.
•••••	Ruendo	Tazei		135. High.
******	Ruendo ji iruendo	· •••••		136. Higher.
•••••	Tapume ji ruendo	• •		137. Highest.
******	Kepāto geera	· •	· •••••	138. A horse.
85E 100	Kepāte geera āpi		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	139. A mare.
	Geera pajaibon		·	140. Horses.
. 200 ***	Geera āpidū			141. Mares
*****	Kepāte āheprā ādeva mājū			142. A bull.
800 300	Kepāte mājū kro	***		143. A cow.
*** ***	Mājū āhe pelā doi-ebon .			144. Bulls.
*****	Mājīt dolumbro	····	*** ***	145. Cows.
***	Kepāte ikū	Ngui kārī	Kwi rahār	146. A dog.
*** ***	Kepāte ikū kro	Ngui tāpi	Kwi naŭ	147. A bitch.
··· poo	Ikū pājā, ikū dā		0 2	148. Dogs, .
*** ***	Āpi ikā doi-ebon	• ••••		149. Bitches.
***	Kepāte maji		••••••	150. A he goat.
•••	Kepāte āpi akro maji .	******	·····	151. A female goat.
*** ***	Maji dolumbro . ,	•••		152. Goats.
•••	Kepāte āron mājo	******	•••••	153. A male deer.
300 1-1	Kepāte āpi mājo	***	·····	154. A female deer.
••••	Mājo	*** ***		155. Deer.
••••••	Ngialūmbro laji ji	Hãdi	. ******	156. I am.
•••	Ngio muji gā	*** ***	\	157. Thou art.
887774	Ngio-āpu ji	·······	***	158. He is.
500 ***	Ehundna jigā	· •••	******	159. We are.
•••	Ehund ji ji	* * *****	*****	160. You are.

English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Dafiā (Hamilton).	Dafiā (Robinson).	Miri.
161. They are	Na du-chhayā	Būllu dâ-dna		Bū-lā dūng
162. I was	Phu e-du-chun, nå du-sö .	Ngâ dậ-nma	Ngō dōng-ponā	Ngå düngai (or dāgai, and so throughout).
163. Thou wast	Jah-phu du-chha-mā.	Nâ dâ-nma	No dong-ponā	Nâ dũngai
164. He was	E du-me-re-deh	Ma dâ-nma	Mā dong-ponā	Bui düngai
165. We were	Ni du-chan	Ngâ-lu dâ-nma	Ngō-lu dông-ponā	Ngâ-lū dūngai
166. You were	Ba du-chaua	Nâ-lu dâ-nma	Nō-lu dōng-ponā	Nâ-lû dữngaî
167. They were	Na du-chu	Bûllu dâ-nma	Mā-lu dong-ponā	Bū-lū dūngai
168. Be		Dâ-tâ		No word
169. To be	· ·····	Lyī-dba		•••••
170. Being	<i></i>	•••	·	******
171. Having been	,,	Dâ-tla	·	******
172. I may be	•••			******
173. I shall be	Nâ da-nie	Lyitlyinne	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•••••
174. I should be	•••••	· ••••		· a, ••• ···
175. Beat	Gigueh	Ma-tâ	Mo.to	Pā-tokā
176. To beat	Gi-phi-neh	Ma-ta-ba	Mo-tebo	Pā-kā-pü-for the purpose of
177. Beating	Gi-dah	Ma-ly-hâ.	Мо-пеуа) Protection
178. Having beaten	Gi-le-neh	Ma-pe-la.	Mō-pe-lō	Pā-lā (lā is present and pust participial suffix).
179. I beat	Nah gi-neh	Ngâ ma-dna	Ngō mō-dō	Ngâ pã-dũng.
180. Thou beatest	Ba gü-eh	Nâ ma-dna	No mō-dō	Nâ pā-dūng
181. He beats	E gi-da-eh	Ma ma-dna	Mā mō-dō	Bui pā-düng
182. We beat	Ni gi-neh	Ngâ-lu ma-dua,	Ngō-lu mō-dō	Ngâ-lũ pã-dũng
183. You beat	Jah güeh	Nâ-lu ma-dna	Nō-lu mō-dō	Nâ-l ā pā-dūng
184. They beat	Na gi-dā	Bűllu ma-dna	Mā-lu.mō-dō	Bū-lū pā-dūng
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Nga sheu	Ngâ ma-t-namma	Ngō mō-ра-вā	Ngâ pã-tō
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Ba sheu	Nâ ma-p-namma	Nō-mō-pa-nā	Nâ pā-tō
187. He beat (Past Tense) .	I's-da	Ма та-р-патта	Mā mō-pa-nā	Bui pā-tō
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Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson aud Needham).	Mijū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
*** ***	Heaibu ia ji jigā			161. They are.
•••	Ngialumbro igāpo	Hā dī-yā		162. I was.
•••••	Ngio jigja (? jigā)	·	·	163. Thou wast.
•••••	Ngio-āpu muji ji	·		164. He was.
·····	Ehundna jigā	·		165. We were.
•••••	Ehund mu jigā			166. You were.
•••••	Heaibu mujigā	·	·	167. They were.
•••••	Aibo ah āpā	Dī-nā.	·····	168. Be.
·····	Äji poyā		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	169. To be.
·····	Ngā-ē	·	······· ·	170. Being.
•••	Eja jipo mijah	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	 .	171. Having been.
••••	Ngialumbro eyokachna .	· •••••		172. I may be.
•••••	Ngialumbro kachna	* ******	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	173. I shall be.
•••	Ngialumbro mumota āpā .		• ••••	174. l should be.
•••••	Nūpā āhū prā wā	Hābā-nā	Pong-shū	175. Beat.
•••	Nūpā āhū prā wā		·······	176. To beat.
••••	Āhū lyāh	······		177. Beating.
• •••••	Āhū lyāh	·	· ••••	178. Having beaten.
******	Ngialumbro āhu lyāh .	Hã hābā	(?) Ki pōng	179. I beat.
•••••	Ngio āhū lyāh	· ••••		180. Thou beatest.
	Ngio-āpu āhū lyāh	 .	311111	181. He beats.
••• •••	Ehundna prālā	· ••••	· •••••	182. We beat.
	Ehundāhú lyāh	······	·	183. You beat.
	Heaibu āhū lyāh .	· •••••	··· ·· -	184. They beat.
	·····	Hã hābá-yā .	(?) Ki pōng-gā	185. I beat (Past Tense).
		·	,	186. Thou beatest (Past
•••	•••••			Tense). 187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daflā (Robinson).	Miri.
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Ni shing	Ngâ-lu ma-t-namma	Ngō-lu mō-pa-nā	Ngâ-lũ pā-tō
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Jah ish-da	Nâ-lu_ma-p-namma	Nō-lu mō-pa-nā	Nâ-l u pā-tō
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Nā ish-da	Būllu ma-p-namma	Mā-lu mō-pa-nā	Bū-lū pā-to
191. I am beating	Nah guin	Ngâ ma-s-danna		Ngå på-lä d üng
192. I was beating	Nah gui-chhua	Ngâ ma-lya-dâ-nma		Ngâ pā-lā dūngai
193. I had beaten	Nah gui-chhua	Ngâ ma-nma		,
194. I may beat	Nah gui-phi-neh	Ngâ ma-kin-dâ	<i></i> .	3++ eeg
195. I shall beat	Nah si-ne	Ngâ ma-n-pũ	Ngō mō-bō	Ngâ pā-yē or pā-pt
196. Thou wilt beat	Ba sheue	Nâ ma-n-pü	Nō mō-bō	Nâ pā-yē
197. He will beat	I s-ne	Ма та-п-рй	Mā mō-bō	Bui pā-yē
198. We shall beat	Ni s-ne	Ngâ-lu ma-n-pü	Ngō-lu mō-bō	Ngâ-lũ pā-yō
199. You will beat , .	Jah ishe	Nâ-lu ma-n-p ü	Nō-lu mō-bō	Nâ-lū pā-yē
200. They will beat	Ná s-ne	Būllu ma-n-pū •	Mā-lu, mō-bō	Bū-lū pā-yē
201. I should beat	Nah de i gi-ne			
202. I am beaten	Nah gi-dah	,	· •	•••
203. I was beaten	Nah gi-dah suyā	,		107.100
204. I shall be beaten .	Nah si-ngeh bua			*****
205. I go	Nah khā-ne-be	Ngâ ū-dna	Ngō āngne-dō	Ngå gi-düng
206. Thou goest	Ba khā-bueh	Nâ ū-dna	No āngne-dō	Nâ gi-dũng
207. He goes	E khā-neh	Ma ū-dna	Mā āngne-dō	Bui gī-dūng
208. We go	Ni khā-ne-be	Ngâ-lu ū-dna	Ngō-lu āngne-dō	Ngâ-lū gi-dūng
209. You go	Jah khā-bueh	Nâ-lu ū-dna	No-lu ängne-do	Nâ-lū gĩ-dũng
210. They go	Nā khā-de-be	Büllu ü-dna	Mā-luāngne-dō . ,	Bū-lū gī-dūng
211. I went	Nah din .	Ngâ ŭ-n-ma	Ngö ångne-pa-nä	Ng â gĩ-kā
212. Thou wentest	Ba di-mā	Nå ü-nma	No angne-pa-na	Nâ gĩ-kā
213. He went	E din	Май-пта	Mā āngue-pa-nā	Buí gi-kā
214. We went	Ni khā-m-bi	Ngâ-lu ū-nma .	Ngō-lu āngne-pa-nā	Ngâ-lū gī-kā
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Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Dig āru Mis hmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
······				188. We beat (Past Tense).
•••				189. You beat (Past Tense).
•••				190. They beat (Past Tense).
*** ***	Ngialumbro mujiji lyāh .		(?) Ķi pong meng	191. I am beating.
******	Ngialumbro igapo muja .			192. I was beating.
*** ***	Ngialumbro āhū muja lyāh			193. I had beaten.
*****	Ngialumbro padunēpya āhū			194. I may beat.
*** ***	Ngialumbro āhū prāwā .	Hã hàbā-ndē	(?) Ki pōng yung	195. I shall beat.
•••••				196. Thou wilt beat.
*** ***	,		·	197. He will beat.
******				198. We shall beat.
******			•••••	199. You will beat.
*** ***		•••	·····	200. They will beat.
******	Ngialumbro āhū proa (? prāwā) lyāh.	····	•••••	201. I should beat.
	Ngialumbro āhū lai	······	*** ***	202. I am beaten.
*** ***	Ngialumbro āhū proa (? prāwā) lyāh.	•••••		203. I was beaten.
*** ***	Ngialumbro na-āhū prāwā .		*** ***	204. I shall be beaten.
lubstitute ën for gi .	Ngialumbro bā prāwā yah .	Нã ьъ	(?) Ki phai	205. I go.
•••	Ngio bā nā lah.	•••••	,	206. Thou goest.
••• •••	Ngio-āpu bā lyah	•••		207. He goes.
••••	•••••			208. We go.
•••		•••••		209. You go.
******		••••		210. They go.
****	Ngialumbro bā byah (? lyāh).	Hã bō-yā	(?) Ki phai-gā	211. I went.
*** ***	Ngio bā na bah (? lyāh)			212. Thou wentest.
	Ngio-āpu bālagā edya .			213. He went.
	•••			214. We went.

English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daffā (Robinson).	Miri.
215. You went	Jah khammā	Nâ-lu ŭ-nma	Nō-lu āng-ne-pa-nā	Nâ-lū gī-kā
216. They went	Nā khā-de-bi	Büllu ü-nma	Mā-lu āng-ne-pa-nā	Bū-lū gī-kā
217. Go	Khā-bueh	Únni	Āng-ne	Gī-tokā
218. Going	Di-deh	U-ly-hâ		G_{i-la}
219. Gone	Khā-me-bi	Ú-pela		
220. What is your name? .	Ba nini han chenia?	Nâ amin-a hog?	No mang-men hogo?	Nâ-ka āmuin înkwâ-na? Your name what?
221. How old is this horse?	Phu-grā adiat ki-nia-ba? .	Sâ ghurā sī hogad-ja akkha- denna ?		Si-gārā-sī adit-kâ mūjī This-horse-this how old dūng? is?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Aiya Kashmir ke-nia ra-da?	Sâka Kashmīr hâ-ba hagad- gâ ā-dâ-dâ ?		Kashmir-deg såk Kashmir-country from-here adit-kå mötë dåk? how far is?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Bau e-niya mu- <u>kh</u> u sā ke- nia-dah ?	Nâ āb-ga nām-hâ kâ-w-a hagad-gâ dâ-dne?	·	Nâ-ka bābū-ka êkūm-lâ Your father's house-in kō-mīlvong adit-kâ child-male how-many dùng? are?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Nah u e-ra-goio din	Ngâ sâlo ādâ ālgâ ga-pe- namma.		Silō ngâ bâjē-pü gī-tō. To-day I much went.
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Āva sei sām gri-dain	Ngâ acch-ga kâ ha hâ buir- mam nānma.	•••••	Ngâ-ka pai-ka au bui-ka My uncle's son his buirma yamnē-lā-tō. sister married.
226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.	Phu-grā grou saio zin gne luri-du-ge du.	Hâ năm ărrühâ ghura pūllū- ga jin-e dâ-dâ.		Ekūm ārā-lā yêsīna gorā-ka House in white horse's jin dūng. saddle is.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Zin sai gne luri-du-goio age laoye.	Jin hām hâ lāng auwā ap-tâ.	·•	Jin bui-k a lāmkū-lâ Saddle his back-on mē-tokā, put.
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	E-sau sai nau guin	Hâ kâ-am ngâ ēgâ jinma .	 .	Ngâ bui-ka au-em bâjē-pū Î his son much pā-tō. beat.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Tu ge phu du-ge phu-l <u>kh</u> u rawkhri-da-ya.	Ha güddā au-wâ mindui sa rekh-dâ.	·	Bui ādī taio lâ gorū He hill top on cattle rā-kī-dūng. ¹ keeping.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Suin e-lâ sei phu-grā e-zui- gui-neh re-da.	Ha ghurā au-wâ san lye-ku- hâ dâ-dna.	••• • •	Bui ursing kēēg-lâ gorā He tree below horse taio-lâ dūng. upon is.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	E-nü-mi i-ama pshü-pho-da	Hâ bor hâ buir-mam auâ-yā- dâ.	.	Bui-ka buirâ bui-ka buirma His brother his sister lok-ke bâttêdek. from bigger.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	E-gnu takarphu kshiya e-phiriā.	Hâ dor ha taka bār-nyi-gâ lā a-doli-gâ.		Da āttār-ka ārü That article's price bar-nyī-kâ lāng ādūlī. ² rupees-two and half.

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¹ Miris have no word for grazing: $r\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{u}ng$, is keeping.
² Miris have no word for half-rupee.

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi. (Campbell).	Digaru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mījū Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	English.
				215. You went.
· ,				216. They went.
,	Bā lauji or bāladra	Bō-nā	Phai-shū	217. Go.
****	Bā miah			218. Going.
	Bābyah (? lyāh)			219. Gone.
\$01.111	New siladra āmu?			220. What is your name?
•••••	Heya geerā mag phiāhā? .		,	221. How old is this horse?
••••	Ejaniba ba Kashmir ajige mag phiāhā?	, ,	. .	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
	New nābā ah jiji gā ? .			223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
	Nga etani mala guge mya la aghuha.		•••••	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
	Heya athi ebo ah yabi gyah.			225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
······································	Nga kua (? uka) andye lapna geerā ayah jiji payā.			226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse,
	Andye lamra puru			227. Put the saddle upon his back.
	Newa nga midu hulā pata .	····		223. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
•••••	E heiā tā āng gupu maju halni.	······		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
<i></i>	Heia aganuah dābo ē heiā geerā ja jigya.		 .	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
	Ah heiā apia aheya athia ruend.	•••••		231. His brother is taller than his sister.
·····	Aheya aji geya ē mu kāni atigē ayho.		******	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.

	English.	Aka (Darrang).	Eastern Daflā (Hamilton).	Daflā (Robinson).	Miri.
2 33.	My father lives in that small house.	Nah āu bugia e-mi-sa-na ngya-ga re-da.	Ngâāb-a hâ nām ainyū hâ dâ-dna.		•••••
234.	Give this rupee to him	Takarphu sei i jya	Sâ dhan sām hām ji-tâ .		Sim mürkong sim buim This rupee this him-to bī-tokā. give.
235.	Take those rupees from him.	Aiya takarphu senai la-chhe.	Hâ dhan hām hâka nā-tâ .	•••••	Dem mürkong dem bui-ka Those rupees those him lok-ke lä-tokä. from take:
236.	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	U-di-neh gi-neh seizaya khilineh veuya.	Hām ālba jitla ākhā hâl lelap-tâ.		Buim ai-pü pā-lā shorī lā Him well beating rope with rin-tokā. bind.
2 37.	Draw water from the well.	Khu-geri goio khu lauye .	Tuk tā-lâ issh bū-tâ	******	No word for "well."
23 8.	Walk before me .	Na-bra duye	Ū-cho-lyā-tâ	•••••	Ngâ-ka kērā-p ü gī-tokā Me-of front-wise go.
239.	Whose boy comes be- hind you?	Ba-phumiya zi mu- <u>kh</u> u sā de-se-da-vah?	Higa kâ-wa nâ kâ-ku-â ûd-dē?	•••••	Nâ-ka mēlāmpü sēkā au Your behind whose son gī-dūng? coming-is?
240.	From whom did you buy that?	Ba phai zuiya phu-niya lavah?	Nâ sām hī-ga lokka renma ?	*****	Dem sēka lok-ke rēton? That who from buy?
2 4 1.	From's shopkeeper of the village.	Ne-thi-ya dokain a-sheya phu-niya lain.	Sâ nenga sâk karman sâkka.		Dölüng dökändärl lok-ke. Village shopkeeper from.
				·	
					-
	;		nave no word for shopkeeper.		

Abor (when different from Miri).	Chulikātā or Taying Mishmi (Campbell).	Digāru Mishmi (Robinson and Needham).	Mîjû Mishmi (Robinsen and Needham).	English.
	Ngā nābā nāah hi majia jigya.	•••••		233. My father lives in the small house.
······	Eja pro premē ha ala .			234. Give this rupee to him
	Ahaia ē kemahē pau āhū hohā āgay.			235. Take those rupees from him.
	Pre āgay hūp jību eja al bion jijiabā.		· ··	236. Beat him well and bin him with ropes.
	Eu poma ajia māji bogen .			237. Draw water from th well.
•••••	Agu pragê lāma	******	··· •··	238. Walk before me.
	Nas mita asia ah iga yaba?	•••		239. Whose boy comes be hind you?
	Esu aygā ne ayha isima loga lah?	•••		240. From whom did yo buy that?
•••	An ma kheng gê abi ji ehenia			241. From a shopkeeper of the village.
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